

ED 343 332

EC 301 016

**AUTHOR** Bullock, Lyndal M., Ed.; Simpson, Richard L., Ed.  
**TITLE** Critical Issues in Special Education: Implications for Personnel Preparation. Monograph.  
**INSTITUTION** North Texas State Univ., Denton.  
**SPONS AGENCY** Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (ED), Washington, DC. Div. of Personnel Preparation.  
**PUB DATE** 90  
**NOTE** 118p.; Papers presented at the Forum on Emerging Trends in Special Education and Implications for Training Personnel (Washington, DC, February 8-9, 1990). For selected individual papers, see EC 301 017-027.  
**AVAILABLE FROM** Programs in Special Education, University of North Texas, P.O. Box 13857, Denton, TX 76203 (\$10.00).  
**PUB TYPE** Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)  
**EDRS PRICE** MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.  
**DESCRIPTORS** At Risk Persons; \*Change Strategies; \*Disabilities; Educational Change; Educational Legislation; \*Educational Trends; Elementary Secondary Education; Futures (of Society); Higher Education; Language Handicaps; Leadership Training; Postsecondary Education; Preschool Education; Professional Development; \*Special Education; Special Needs Students; Staff Development; Teacher Certification; \*Teacher Education; Teacher Educator Education; Teacher Recruitment; \*Trend Analysis; Urban Education  
**IDENTIFIERS** Education for All Handicapped Children Act

**ABSTRACT**

This document is the product of a forum that attempted to identify trends in education that are affecting and will continue to affect children with disabilities from birth to age 21, and the ensuing implications for the training of personnel. The edited transcripts of two introductory presentations begin with volume--"Charting the Course for the 1990's" (Judy Schrag) and "The Accidental Crisis" (Catherine V. Morsink). Small group discussions and recommendations are reported in the following papers: "Special Education and School Reform" (Stan F. Shaw and others); "Is It a New View? Catching Up with 94-142" (Virginia DeRoma-Wagner); "Restructuring Teacher Education: One Group's Perspective" (Clarence R. Calder); "Restructuring Teacher Education: The Integration of Undergraduate Curriculum" (Teresa D. Bunsen); "Professional Development Centers: A Collaborative Model" (Clarence R. Calder); "Leadership Training for Teacher Educators" (Sheila Lowenbraun); "State Certification" (Allen M. Huang and others); "Recruitment and Retention: Emerging Trends in Special Education and Implications for Training Personnel" (Richard L. Simpson and others); "Changes in the Urban School Population: Challenges in Meeting the Need for Special Education Leadership and Teacher Preparation Personnel" (Jeannette E. Fleischner and Richard VanAcker); "Preparing Special Education and Related Services Personnel To Serve Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Children with Handicaps: Needs and Future Directions" (Bruce A. Ramirez); "Some Perspectives on Preparing Personnel To Work with At-Risk Children, Birth to Five" (S. Kenneth Thurman and others); and "Children with Complex Medical Needs: Implications for Training Personnel" (M. Virginia Wyly). (JDD)

ED343332

Monograph on  
**CRITICAL ISSUES IN SPECIAL EDUCATION:  
IMPLICATIONS FOR PERSONNEL PREPARATION**

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Papers included in this monograph have been developed based on presentations and discussions at the "Forum on Emerging Trends in Special Education and Implications for Training Personnel" sponsored by the Division of Personnel Preparation, Office of Special Programs, Washington, DC, February 8-9, 1990.

The points of view expressed in this monograph are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the positions of the U. S. Department of Education, and no official endorsement should be inferred.

Additional copies of this monograph may be purchased for \$10.00 by writing to Programs in Special Education, University of North Texas, P.O. Box 13857, Denton, Texas 76203. (Make checks payable to: UNT, Programs in Special Education.)

## **Acknowledgements**

Special appreciation is given to Jeanie McMahan and  
Karran Kuhler for their assistance with the preparation of  
the papers contained in this monograph.

Lyndal M. Bullock  
Richard L. Simpson

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## FOREWORD

This document is the product of the Forum on Emerging Trends in Special Education and Implications for Personnel Training which was convened by the Division of Personnel Preparation, Office of Special Education Programs, U. S. Department of Education, in February 1990. The professionals who participated attempted to identify the trends in education that are affecting and will continue to affect children with disabilities, birth to 21, over the next several years. The identified trends have implications for the training of personnel. The results of the deliberations are reported herein.

The philosophy that provided the impetus for the Forum was succinctly stated by Robert Davila, Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS), in a Mission Statement issued in February, 1990. It said, "In order to enhance opportunities for people with disabilities to achieve their individual potential and maximum participation and productivity in society, the mission of OSERS is to provide effective leadership to improve special education and rehabilitation services through research, innovation and development, training, dissemination, and support of direct services". This desire to support the field in its efforts to meet the challenges served as the inspiration for the Forum.

### The Design of the Forum

The Forum consisted of a three-step process: (a) formulating the emerging trends for discussion, (b) formalizing the topics in small group discussions, and (c) developing potential strategies for addressing the personnel training implications in small group sessions.

The first step of the Forum was to identify future trends in education that are or will be affecting training for personnel who work with the birth to 21 year old population with disabilities. The participants who were primarily involved in personnel training at institutions of higher education were asked to identify the topics they considered to be the most critical and beneficial for discussion at the Forum and then develop a prioritized list of up to ten topics. There was a 93% response rate. The topics clearly fell into two broad categories: School Reform and Changing Populations. These were used to structure the Forum discussions.

The second step was to form small groups for the purpose of discussing specific issues and examining implications of the topics selected by the participants. One-half of the participants discussed "Changing Populations", which encompassed four subtopics. A small group deliberated on each of the



following subtopics identified as presenting a concern for our field: Urban Populations, Culturally Diverse Populations, At Risk Birth to Five Population, and the Medically Fragile Population. The "School Reform" group also divided into four subgroups and each group concentrated its discussions and recommendations on one of the following questions: (a) What should happen in K-12 schools having students with disabilities? (b) What should happen in institutions of higher education to prepare teachers to work with these children? (c) What should happen relative to State certification? (d) What changes may enable us to recruit and retain quality teachers?

The discussions of these groups are reported in this document along with the suggested responses they formulated. The responses are from the field of special education and related services. Recommendations are to the field, State education agencies, local education agencies and the Federal government.

#### **The Participants in the Forum**

There was a deliberate attempt to ensure that representation from a cross-section of disciplines was involved in this Forum. In order to facilitate a more comprehensive discussion of the topics, persons with expertise in service delivery and policy formulation were invited to participate along with professionals from higher education. Special educators, special education personnel trainers, parents, local school district personnel, medical personnel, persons from related services (e.g., Psychology, therapeutic recreation) and individuals involved with the formulation of policy participated. Each possessed expertise and experiences which enhanced the discussions.

#### **The Accomplishments of the Forum**

This document contains papers from the discussions of the small groups. The interaction within the small groups made the Forum extremely meaningful for participants. However, a fraction of the discussions could be captured in this document. The thinking and imagination of the field to address these pertinent issues is the contribution we offer in these pages from the Forum participants.

Doris Sutherland\*  
Teresa Bunsen\*

\* This article was written by the authors in their private capacities. No official support or endorsement by the Department of Education is intended or should be inferred.



# Introduction

# **Charting the Course for the 1990's**

**Judy Schrag  
U.S. Office of Special Education Programs**

(The following are the highlights of a speech by Judy Schrag, Director of OSEP. Dr. Schrag has a true awareness of the issues of special education. She does not claim to have the answers but is excited to work with leaders in the field and with OSEP in order to help find solutions to the challenging issues facing special education.)

The trouble with being a leader these days is that often you do not know if you are leading or following. We are so busy just being reactive that we continue doing what we are doing without taking time to gaze into the crystal ball and become proactive and wise in our anticipation skills. If we would take this time we could undoubtedly refine our practices accordingly.

Harold Pluimer, futurist, has said that given the complexity of society today and in the future we will either have to evolve in education or dissolve. We can no longer superimpose the old onto the new or the result will be a "future-out-of-focus". We need new and evolving paradigms. There are several different issues and paradigm shifts that are facing all of us as leaders in the classroom, school districts, colleges and universities, state departments of education (SEA's) and the federal government. These reactive and proactive issues are chasing us into the 90's.

## **Demographic, Medical and Emotional Issues**

The first variable that will challenge us in the 1990's is the changing population that we are serving in special education. The fact of the matter is that the students we serve in special education today are not the students that we served 5 years ago. There is an increase in the number of students with learning problems because of poverty, child abuse, ethnic and language diversity, teenage pregnancy, and drug dependence. Our traditional handicapping categories are changing.

A recent nationwide hospital survey conducted by the National Association for Perinatal Addiction Research and Education found that the overall rate of deliveries affected by substance abuse in 36 major hospitals was 11% with a variation in rates among hospitals from 0.4% to 26%. The incidence of substance abuse during pregnancy is not confined to urban settings, nor is it limited to low income women. A 1989 survey conducted by the select Committee on Children, Youth, and Families found 15 out of 18 hospitals reporting 3 to 5 times as many drug exposed births as compared to 1985.

We have much to learn about the different intervention and educational strategies to deal with this population. This is a complex question and we do not have good longitudinal or epidemiological studies to tell us about differential treatments for this heterogeneous group of children. There is also an increase in the number of medically-fragile children in the schools. Through advanced medical technology and knowledge, severely handicapped infants are being saved. New medications are being used for cancer, epilepsy and emotional problems. Some of these medications now appear to permanently affect learning skills. There is a greater survival rate of head injured students. Although more are being saved, they often retain some permanent disability. There is an estimated increase of 400 more head injury treatment centers in the past few years. Scoliosis patients are now returning to school without extended home or hospital stays. Children with cystic fibrosis, muscular dystrophy, and heart defects are living much longer due to successful medical intervention. There is also an increase in AIDS or HIV infected babies. Last year, 15,000 cases of AIDS children below 6 years of age were reported. There is already a growing case law to support the necessity of making individual determinations in favor of maintaining children with AIDS in school to avoid irreparable injury from being excluded from school. There is also an increase of premature babies often having medically-fragile conditions. Our special education population is also getting younger as states implement pre-school mandates and infant and toddler programs.

Another population of students that has been changing are those classified as emotionally disturbed. There are younger and more impacted children with emotional problems. The needs of this population are not being met. These children with emotional problems are, in general, "falling through the cracks" and being placed in residential programs with little systematic transition planning back to the community and the family to assure generalization of treatment effects.

Congress is also concerned about this population. It is currently proposing legislation to reauthorize the discretionary programs of EHA. Both the Senate and the House versions include a new discretionary program for emotionally disturbed children. This program, if passed and funded, would (a) provide grants to school districts and states to develop new methodologies and curriculum to improve services for these children, (b) support efforts to develop and demonstrate strategies and approaches to reduce the use of out-of-community residential programs, and (c) encourage the increased use of coordination across agencies for day treatment, after school and summer programs.

We have and will continue to have a changing population of students to serve as we proceed through the 90's. The rapid pace

of discovery and the acceleration of new technology, antibiotic therapy and research involving gene slicing and gene therapy will further change our population.

### Teacher Issues

"WHO WILL TEACH OUR CHILDREN IN THE 1990's?" Providing an adequate supply of qualified special education personnel in this decade is another challenge. This challenge will demand creative leadership and new paradigms in special education.

There are already some statistics that are chasing us. Data suggest that up to 30% of special education personnel are currently on emergency certificates, compared to a 10% rate in general education. Attrition studies report that special educators leave their professions twice as often as that of general educators. There are also shortages in the related service areas. Minority teachers represent only about 13% of public school teachers, yet, 30% of the school-age population and about 33% of the preschool population are composed of minority students. We have the challenge to increase minority representation among our special educators to reflect the increased ethnic diversity of the special education population.

We will need creative and aggressive strategies at all levels, school districts, SEA's, state boards of education, legislatures, and federal government in order to plan and implement effective strategies for recruitment, training, and retaining of special education personnel. We will need to look at non-traditional sources of potential personnel, such as, high school student traineeships, scholarships, business exchanges, and creative social service provider job exchanges.

### Student Outcomes and Transition Issues

Another issue that will challenge and chase us through the 90's is that our outcome data is not what it should be. A recent study has indicated that 20% of the adult population is functionally illiterate in those skills needed for coping in our society (i.e., reading, writing, speaking, listening, computation, problem solving and interpersonal skills). Thirty to 50% of illiterate adults are estimated to have learning disabilities or another handicap.

A recently funded study by OSERS, The National Longitudinal Study, sampled 8,000 young people between the ages of 13-23 who are in special education. This study is being conducted by SRI International and is looking at how well students with disabilities are doing in school. Initial data from the study are presenting some alarming statistics: 31.3% of all special education students studied (or 1 in 3) were failing in one or more courses (34%, LD; 44.6%, SED; 41.8%, MR; 35.5%, speech impaired; and 8.1%, deaf). In another study by Owens and

Stocking, 45% of sophomores in special education were in the lowest quartile on combined vocational, reading, math, and science tests as compared to only 19% of the non-handicapped students.

Another outcome measure shows that approximately 22% of handicapped students are dropping out of school as compared to 12% of the non-handicapped, a ratio of 1.5 to 2.1. Data from the National Longitudinal Study also show that fewer than half of youth with disabilities find competitively paying jobs while in school. Overall, 23% of youth with disabilities who have been out of school less than one year work part-time for pay, and 22% work full-time. Full-time employment was only 28%. This same study found fewer than 15% of special education students who have been out of secondary school one or two years participated in postsecondary education as compared to 56% of the general youth population. Six percent attended a two-year or community college, compared to 18% in the general population; only 2% attended a four-year college or university compared to 28% in the general population. We will need to explore expanded models of transition and more effective secondary programs in order to impact this outcome data.

Transitions encountered by handicapped children and youth will need to carefully knit together services at the point of entry into the system. There are a number of other transitions to fine tune as we move through the 90's. Congress is addressing various transitions in their Senate and House versions of the discretionary reauthorization bills. The Senate bill directs the Secretary of Education to make grants or enter into contracts or cooperative agreements to address the multiple transitions which a child with a handicap may face throughout the school years. This includes (a) the transition from medical care to special education for those children with handicaps or chronic health impairments who may require individualized health related services, (b) the transitions between residential placement and community-based special education services, and (c) the transitions between separate educational placements and the regular classroom placement. This bill would provide for funding of research, demonstration, and training projects to improve our data gathering about students in need of specific transition assistance. This will include training of school nurses, educators, related service providers, aides to provide health-related services, training of case managers, demonstration models to enhance and facilitate continuing interactions between medical and school personnel, and demonstration models to explore multiple sources of funding for health-related services.

The transition program within the senate bill also includes the awarding of at least five grants to projects where the SEA and the state vocational rehabilitation agencies submit a joint application designed to improve transition services. These proposals need to (a) target resource issues, (b) provide access to rehabilitative counseling in school settings, interagency



funding of transition services, (c) provide for early on-going information and training for individuals regarding transition, and (d) ensure that individuals at age 21 will immediately receive rehabilitation and other adult services.

### Interagency and Related Service Issues

Because of increased student diversity and the complex educational, social service and health/medical needs, the whole "child approach" is the main focus. There are interagency partnerships emerging throughout the country across education, health, social, and human services. Mental health workers and social service case workers are being employed or working in the schools. School-based health clinics and before and after child care have emerged throughout the country. There are increased school-business partnerships. A survey last year estimated 140,000 such partnerships within 20,000 school systems. Many school systems and states are implementing joint funding arrangements across education, health and human services. Each state has an active state interagency coordination council to plan for the implementation of Part H of P.L. 99-457, in order to develop a comprehensive service delivery system for children with disabilities beginning at birth.

The Americans with Disabilities Act of 1989 which has passed the Senate and is pending in the House, is a landmark civil rights bill which is intended to establish a clear and comprehensive prohibition of discrimination on the basis of disability for all citizens. Discrimination addressed in this act relates to (a) employment, including job application, hiring or discharge of employees, compensation, advancement, job training, medical examinations and inquiries; (b) public services, including public buses and rail systems; (c) privately-operated services such as hotels, restaurants, and bars, theaters, convention centers, shops, and professional offices, parks and museums, and private schools; and (d) telecommunication services which include TDD and telecommunication systems. This law was needed because the historic Civil Rights Act of 1964 does not cover people with disabilities, leaving them without broad protection against discrimination in private employment and services.

### Special Education and School Reform Issues

Governors across the country and President Bush have established national performance goals that will make the United States more internationally competitive. They specifically agreed to establish a process for setting these goals. They have agreed to seek greater flexibility and enhanced accountability in the use of federal resources to meet these goals through both regulatory and legislative changes. They

agreed to undertake a major state-by-state effort to restructure the educational system and also to report annually on progress in achieving these goals.

The 1990's will see increased participation of special education in education reform and restructuring of the schools. The role of choice in the service delivery for disabled persons will need to be addressed. A series of regional meetings across the country have been held to explore options regarding restructuring.

The regular education initiative means different things to any thirty people in a room. However, there are some important concepts that were directly or indirectly implied within this initiative that will continue to be an emphasis as we proceed through the 90's. Special education program enhancements include better coordination across special programs and general education, increased roles of the building principals, continued exploration of the circumstances under which students with special needs can be educated in the regular classrooms and exploration of refinements in our assessment and classification procedures. These refinement areas have implications for paradigm shifts, shifts in attitudes, teacher preparation, curriculum, instructional practices, grouping procedures, and student eligibility changes.

#### Advances in Technology

Advances in technology in the education and rehabilitation of disabled persons will clearly occur in the 1990's. New technology and its application to the education and rehabilitation of handicapped persons will continue to occur. The technology-related paradigm shift in special education and rehabilitation is in keeping with John Naisbitt's megatrends toward "high tech" and "high touch". He has said that we are living in the time of the parenthesis, the time between eras. The most formidable challenge will be to train people to work in the information society. The ultimate effects of this trend on handicapped persons are difficult to foresee. The magnitude of information transmission is likely to increase five-fold within the coming decade. The utilization of television communication satellites, fiber optics, interactive video disks and other technologies can address issues in special education such as rural delivery, high quality parent training, early intervention in the home, and alternative training modes. Technology supported performance may dramatically improve the employability of the handicapped.

On August 19, 1988, Public Law 100-407 became law with the primary purpose to assist states in developing comprehensive, consumer responsive programs for disabled people of all ages. This law was designed to (a) provide assistance to people with disabilities and those involved with them such as parents, siblings, friends, teachers, and counselors lacking in knowledge



or training in the use of technology and support services; (b) provide assistance in coordinating funding for technology; and (c) provide assistance in putting into place a comprehensive system to help people with disabilities acquire technology. As of this date, nine states have been funded to establish state-wide technology assistance programs. An important function of these state-wide programs will be to deal with the overall challenge to keep up and translate into operation and practice that which exists. Clearly, the efforts in the technology programs within these nine states (and additional states to be funded next year) will be welcomed as we proceed through this decade.

### Conclusion

Oliver Wendall Holmes once said it is not so important where we stand, but where we are going. I am excited about where we are going. There are exciting practices and efforts for children and youth with disabilities across the country. It is a great pleasure to be able to meet with the leaders in the field of Special Education at this Forum on the Emerging Trends in Special Education. There are many issues to be met and dealt with. We will need strong leadership and a strong infrastructure of special education along with active participation of parents, practitioners, advocates, school administrators, and school boards in order to continue to strive for full services for all children.

(This speech was edited by Virginia DeRoma-Wagner in collaboration with Dr. Schrag.)

# The Accidental Crisis

Catherine V. Morsink  
University of Florida

There is currently a crisis in education. "Crisis" refers to a moment of danger; it can also be a turning point, an opportunity for growth and change. The articles included in this monograph, including those focusing on "Changing Populations" and "School Reform", seem to pose a conflict for which there is no resolution. This conflict is descriptive of the crisis.

On the one hand, we see changes in the population we must serve: the increases, both in numbers and in complexity of persons with special needs, have intensified our need for qualified personnel, indirect services, and in leadership positions. There is also a broader context to the reality of changing populations: we are changing as a nation. We are growing older, and have increasing numbers of persons -- especially single parents -- who live in poverty. Our infrastructure is decaying: we need new roads, and bridges, and more prisons, pensions, hospitals. When the nation's cost for services to the aging is one billion dollars a week and our debt is seven trillion dollars, we wonder if there's any money left for education.

School reform makes up the other half of the conflict that constitutes the crisis. We have imposing bureaucratic barriers and "higher" standards, which at best, leave out, and at worst, drive out the populations about whom we care so deeply. The move towards legislated learning, while representing good intentions, has merely increased our student's acquisition of unrelated factors, diluting the quality of education. The need for school reform is urgent. We know that the lowest level of jobs available in the 1990's will require a reading vocabulary of 2,500 words, a reading rate of 95-125 words a minute, and the ability to write simple sentences. There will be three applicants for each one of these jobs. In such a work force, where will "our kids" fit?

This conflict between the need for school reform and the realities of changing populations constitutes a crisis. The crisis could be a moment of danger.

- \* Will we, in an effort to solve our personnel shortages, acquiesce to lower standards, with inadequate preparation that perpetuates the problems?
- \* Will we shrug that "there is nothing our kids can do in the labor force" and in the process allow them

to receive dutiful charity or to be relegated again to custodial care in the back wards of institutions?

- \* Will we give in to pressure, and agree that a free, appropriate public education is too expensive, or allow entitlements intended to correct past inequities to be used for undifferentiated general education that sinks to a common level of mediocrity?

If we do these things, the crisis will be a moment of danger. But, there's an alternative: we can view the crisis as a turning point for growth and change. The two conflicting trends of changing populations and school reform, which seem so negative, can provide all educators with an unparalleled opportunity to reexamine our professional assumptions.

- \* We can help the profession to reexamine its philosophical assumptions. We've always valued diversity, now diversity is the norm.
- \* We can reevaluate our delivery system. We've always wished for lifelong learning, and for parent/business partnership; now families must be involved in education from the moment of their handicapped child's birth, and education extends beyond the classroom to the community and the workplace.
- \* We can redefine curriculum. We've always wanted to emphasize the knowledge and skills that are most important to the individual's life; now our knowledge base is so vast, so rapidly growing that we can't teach everything and we must select only that which is of greatest importance.

Those of us in special education have always wanted reform. We now have a school system that is so ineffective, so outdated, that everyone knows we must reform. Had we set out to do so, we could not have created conditions that were more conducive to reform than those reflecting population change and school improvement.

The present crisis emerging from these trends is not a moment of danger; it is a turning point, an opportunity for growth and change in personnel preparation. Let us seize this moment of crisis to create a new vision, molded from the best of our diverse ideas. Let us stretch our imaginations, expand our creative solutions, share our dreams.

## **School Reform**

# **Special Education and School Reform**

**Stan F. Shaw**  
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**University of Nebraska**

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**University of California at Los Angeles**

## **Defining the Issue**

The decade of the 1980's saw education soaring toward the top of the national agenda. Many voices were raised and comprehensive reports on the "state of education" gave schools failing grades. Recommendations were made encouraging the development of new models which would provide information and tools for future economic and technological survival (Hagarty & Abramson, 1987). We elected George Bush, the self-proclaimed "Education President", who called for the creation of national education goals and specific expectations for student performance. Yet even as we design new models and formulate new goals, our school population becomes increasingly diverse, a school population that by the end of this decade will be more than one third Black, Hispanic or Asian, and include one quarter who live in poverty (Lisi, 1989). Our numbers of students "at-risk" have skyrocketed, and therefore, the issue of educational equity must be addressed if we are to design appropriate school options for all students.

As the future of schools was debated, special educators often stood on the sidelines. Only in the latter half of the decade did special educators join in. Rather than deal with school reform as a whole, special educators focused on Will's (1986) Regular Education Initiative (REI) regarding the integration of children with handicaps into the mainstream. Although no one would deny the on-going importance of teaching students with handicaps in the least restrictive environment (LRE), the discussion of REI was tremendously divisive (Sapon-Shevin, 1988). As special educators and their advocacy groups

became increasingly polarized for or against "total integration", school reform moved forward without them.

This review of school reform will critically analyze the impact of the traditional school reform model on students who are "at-risk" and disabled. An inclusionary model of school reform is proposed which is intended to provide a positive educational experience leading to productive lives for all students. The focus of special educators on the narrow issue of least restrictive environment as opposed to the broader issues of school reform is discussed. Approaches to teacher preparation are presented which are based on the inclusionary model of school reform.

### Special education and school reform

The reform in the schools discussion group at the Forum on Emerging Trends in Special Education and Implications for Training Personnel began with a review of current thinking on school reform. The traditional view of school reform was found to be both pervasive and exclusionary. Felt (1985), in her review of reports on educational reform, identified a number of basic themes which focused on this exclusionary perspective:

1. Goals - specifying national and state goals for student achievement.
2. Assessment - using normative tests to measure student performance against those goals.
3. Academic Standards - raising academic expectations by establishing more core required courses, particularly in math, science and foreign language.
4. Behavioral Standards - specifying higher expectations for student behavior.
5. Graduation Requirements - detailing increased requirements for receiving a high school diploma.
6. Resources - directing professional and fiscal resources toward those students who are likely to make a significant contribution to society.
7. Deregulation - relieving schools from "burdensome regulations" which foster unproductive paperwork and take professionals away from instructional activities.
8. Teacher Empowerment - ensuring teachers a greater role in educational decisions relating to their classroom and school.



9. Local Control - providing parents and communities increased opportunities to select school options and make decisions about how schools are managed.
10. Principals - establishing greater autonomy for principals as key decision makers responsible for maintaining school climate and organization.

#### Impact on special education

One would be hard pressed to argue that higher standards, clear educational goals, teacher empowerment or building-based leadership are, in themselves, inappropriate. However, there is much in the literature which raises serious questions about the impact of these elements of school reform on students with disabilities (Braaten & Braaten, 1988; Hagerty & Abramson, 1987; Kauffman, 1989; Pugach, 1987; Sapon-Shevin, 1987; Shepard, 1987). There is deep concern that in an attempt to raise standards and, therefore, become competitive internationally, individual needs of "at-risk" students will not be met.

Although the traditional school reform model may achieve its intent of improving education for students in the top half of the performance continuum, it is exclusionary for the reasons described below. Thus, the remaining students may be lost.

1. Given the growing political pressure on schools, students who do not succeed on standardized tests of national/state performance objectives not only face another failure experience but may also find themselves stigmatized for lowering school norms.
2. Increased required course work in academic subjects will not meet the transition needs of many secondary students with disabilities and may force special education back to self-contained classes and a "watered down curriculum".
3. Rigid graduation requirements may reverse the trend of increased graduation rates for students with handicaps, further exacerbate already alarming drop out rates, and may limit alternatives developed through Individualized Education Programs (IEP's).
4. Higher standards of school behavior may again result in students with social and emotional problems being suspended, expelled and pushed out of school.
5. The current problems of diminishing federal, state and local resources combined with higher expectations for student performance could result in money which was previously earmarked for "special" populations of high risk students now being put into "block grants" to be used at the discretion of school personnel.



6. Given negative attitudes toward disabled, minority and disadvantaged populations (Biklen, Ford & Ferguson, 1989), local control and autonomy could result in limited support and programs for these populations in many schools.
7. Deregulation is manifesting itself in federal and state requests for waivers of regulations. Although some requests are designed to allow experimentation with new service delivery models, most are thinly veiled attempts to limit identification of students with disabilities, restrict special education services and reduce funding.

It is clear that the exclusionary model of school reform can quickly have a devastating effect on the education of students with disabilities. It is, however, politically and professionally unacceptable to "just say NO". The President's "education summit" and resulting state and national activities demonstrate that the 1990's will see significant school reform and restructuring (Marsh, 1990). Special educators must discontinue debate among themselves: to be or not to be a part of "general education". Rather, a concerted effort must be made by advocates for persons with disabilities, both parents and professionals, to shape school reform in a way which will meet the needs of all students.

### Alternative Solutions

#### An inclusionary model of school reform

In spite of within-group variance in terms of categorical affiliation, professional role and theoretical perspective, special educators do have a common data-base and shared attitudes regarding meeting individual needs. Based on these shared values, the outline of a model for school reform which is appropriate for all children can be developed. This inclusionary model is firmly anchored in the research on effective teaching and effective schools. In addition, it is equally appropriate for those in general and special education.

It is important to note at the outset that many of the "buzz words" associated with the operation of both the exclusionary and inclusionary school reform models are the same. Concern about objectives, assessment and exiting criteria are examples of issues relevant to both approaches. However, these models can be seen as poles on a continuum when the goals of each are analyzed. As Howe (1985) notes, the exclusionary model is intended to meet societal needs (i.e., a trained and competitive work force) while the inclusionary model (Hewett & Wager, 1989) is focused on meeting individual learner needs (i.e., each student fulfills his/her own potential).

### What about REI/LRE

Much of the special education school reform literature has dealt with the Regular Education Initiative (REI) debate (Teacher Education Division, 1986). Initially, REI encouraged parental requests for integrated placements, moving professionals to again focus on least restrictive environment a decade after it became law under P.L. 94-142. REI, however, has now become a pejorative term with little practical meaning (Sapon-Shevin, 1988; Wiederholt, 1989). It creates much heated debate but does not help parents and professionals work collaboratively to integrate students with disabilities.

Educating students in the least restrictive environment (LRE) is the law. Almost all parents and special educators would agree that we must find more effective ways of implementing LRE but that no one type of placement is appropriate for all students with disabilities all the time at all ages. Of even greater importance is the notion that the REI/LRE debate itself is irrelevant if the exclusionary model of school reform prevails. For the reasons outlined previously, the regular classroom under the traditional model will not be the appropriate placement for most students with disabilities. Unless we deal with school reform for all students, the 1990's will see the pendulum shift back to pull-out programs for students who do not fit in an unresponsive general education environment (Sapon-Shevin, 1987; Toch, 1984).

### School reform for all

An inclusionary approach to school reform begins with the belief that school can meet the educational needs of all children and that all children can learn. There must be an acceptance of the value of each student regardless of academic ability, social behavior, race, class or any other label or group designation. Schools must be equally committed to meeting the individual needs of all students wherever they fall on the continuum of academic ability. School personnel with these beliefs will implement a school reform model characterized by adherence to the research on effective instruction and effective schools, development of exit criteria which reinforce productive school learning, implementation of curricular alternatives which provide for the range of students in their classrooms, include options to serve all students in the community within the local school, and encourage building based leadership which takes responsibility for meeting the needs of the students in the school, with particular focus on those with special needs.

### Effective teaching

Special educators have long believed that effective teaching for students with handicaps is effective instruction for all; and the research literature supports their belief. Larrivee (1989) reported that teachers who were effective with mainstreamed

students were likewise effective with their total classroom. Algozzine and Maheady (1986) emphasized the importance of effective instruction in their statement that,

. . . substantial student improvements occur when teachers accept the responsibility for their performance of all their students and when they structure their classrooms so that student success is the primary product of the interaction that takes place there. And, that the gains demonstrated by effective instruction are not bound to the setting in which the teaching occurred or the label assigned to the student who received it. (p. 488).

In addition, two decades of teacher effectiveness research (Brophy & Good, 1986; Christenson, Ysseldyke & Thurlow, 1989; Good & Brophy, 1987; Slavin, Karweit & Madden, 1989; Stein, Leinhardt & Bickel, 1989; Ysseldyke & Christenson, 1987) has demonstrated that the following instructional factors foster achievement across the continuum of students:

- \* efficient classroom management;
- \* positive classroom environment;
- \* teaching goals and teacher expectations are clearly stated and are understood by the parent;
- \* appropriate matching of student characteristics and the characteristics of instructional tasks;
- \* clearly presented lessons which implement a demonstration-prompt-practice sequence and high student response rates;
- \* explicit task specific feedback and corrective procedures are utilized;
- \* instruction is adapted to meet individual student needs by monitoring performance and making the necessary adjustments to foster student achievement;
- \* maintenance of high student academic engagement time; and
- \* frequent monitoring of student performance is characterized by assessing student mastery of specific objectives, keeping records of student performance and informing students of their progress.

These behaviors are observable and teachable. School reform advocates must encourage the preservice and in-service training of all teachers and administrators and expect schools to hire, evaluate and reward teachers based upon these critical instructional variables.

Although it is encouraging that good teaching for handicapped students is effective for all, one must acknowledge that progress with one group of students may, at some point, come at the expense of progress for another group of students within the same classroom (Brophy & Good, 1986). We will have to monitor and evaluate this potential dilemma as we pursue our goal of effective classrooms for all.

### Effective schools

The effective schools research (Archambault, 1989; Bickel & Bickell, 1988) reinforces some of the basic elements of the traditional school reform model. These include specification of school goals regarding student achievement, local autonomy, parental involvement, and collaborative management between teachers and principal. Other elements, are congruent with the effective teaching literature including instruction that maximizes learning time, monitors student progress and provides regular feedback to students and positive teacher-student interaction. Other characteristics of effective schools, however, assure that these elements foster learning across the academic spectrum.

One critical tenet of the effective schools research is high expectations for the performance of all students. This does not mean one performance standard for all but rather appropriate expectations for each student's growth. Other characteristics of effective schools are structured cooperative learning and flexible grouping (Maruyama, Deno, Cohen & Espin, 1989) which are based on individual assessment and which encourage interaction and social cohesion. If the principal assumes a leadership role which encourages the application of research on effective schools/effective instruction for students, a positive and inclusive school program will be accessible to each student regardless of ability.

### Exit criteria

Graduation should be a reward for students who have met the "high expectations" set by school personnel. There can be a variety of ways for students to demonstrate mastery of appropriate graduation requirements (Salend, 1990).

**Curricular Approach.** Students select a course of study related to their needs, abilities and goals (e.g., college preparation, general education, vocational, life management, individualized). Each curriculum has specific requirements and relevant assessments to identify mastery of competencies. A standard diploma is awarded to a student when mastery of the competencies is documented. A systematic approach to providing course waivers/substitutions within a specified curriculum can be part of this process, as is typical at many post secondary institutions (McGuire, Norlander, & Shaw, 1990).



**IEP Approach.** The IEP can be used as a vehicle for specifying a student's individualized plan of study for goal attainment and graduation and/or specification of any alternatives to standard graduation requirements.

Either of these approaches might be used for any student, not just for students with disabilities. In each case the student's specific courses, grades and standardized scores (i.e., minimum competency tests) would be indicated on transcripts for review by potential employers or post secondary institutions.

### Curriculum

The alarming drop-out rate and problems with transition to employment for many disadvantaged, at-risk, urban and/or rural students supports the need for curriculum reform. The intent of curriculum reform is the same for both models; to prepare students for productive lives after schooling is finished. However, not all career paths require three years of foreign language or calculus. The key is to develop functional options to meet the needs of individual learners. The inclusionary model of reform can provide alternative paths for facilitating adult life success.

Biklen (1985) describes a functional curriculum where "we help both the student and the student's environment adapt to each other. ...This approach builds upon the things that a student can do and tries to adapt and adjust to take advantage of interests or skills" (pp. 83, 84). The typical college preparation track seems to fit this description as it prepares the student for the content and rigor of a college experience while helping the student focus on a major area of interest and ability. Although the college preparatory curriculum may need the development called for in the traditional school reform model, other curriculum options must be developed to meet the diverse needs of our school population.

Many students, disabled and non-disabled, require curricular options which are practical, community-based, and involve real-life training. These curricular approaches should result in students who are more independent, better citizens and more employable than many general education students leaving high schools today. Options such as career education, vocational training and transition activities, which are being extensively offered to students with disabilities, can be effective with a large segment of our current school population.

### Obstacles to Implementation

An attempt has been made to briefly outline elements of an inclusionary model of school reform which special educators could support and general educators would find relevant. The next steps would include further definition and discussion of the characteristics and merits of this reform alternative followed by

discussion of its merits and attempts to implement and evaluate it in controlled settings.

The time has passed for special educators to sit out the battles for school reform. As advocates for all students and particularly those with special needs, we must look beyond our differences and place ourselves at the forefront of the school reform movement.

Kauffman (1989) has documented the powerful efforts of the Reagan-Bush forces pushing for efficiency and excellence in ways which do not serve students with disabilities. In fact, the issue of waivers of performance in which agencies are given time-limited waivers of certain rules and regulations is one of the most divisive political issues we face (Crawford, 1990; Gartner & Lipsky, 1987). Although there are requests for waivers (Education of the Handicapped, 1990) intended to evaluate school reform proposals, they result in increased polarization, particularly between parents and professionals. In addition, they open another political front, further diverting attention from the larger school reform issues. Given that the effective political action of parents of youngsters with disabilities has for decades been the foundation of special education's political strength, we cannot afford to undermine it in these tenuous times. We, therefore, need to resist the granting of any waivers which would limit procedural safeguards or eliminate the continuum of services available to children and parents. Furthermore, as programs for students with disabilities face increasing competition for limited federal, state and local dollars, waivers and deregulation could result in the loss of fiscal support for students with handicaps in whatever setting they are educated (Kauffman, 1989).

#### Approaches to implementation

If the inclusionary model of school reform is to become a reality, advocates for individuals with disabilities need to broaden their political activity and influence. Specifically, there must be a move to relate our concerns and school reform alternatives to general educators. We need to talk with teachers' associations (e.g., local chapters of NEA and UFT), principals, school boards and parent groups about our proposals for school restructuring and reactions to the traditional approach to school reform.

We can broaden our influence by speaking of diversity not disability. Students with handicaps represent only 9.3% of the school population (U.S. Department of Education, 1989) but students who are different (minority, disadvantaged, at-risk) represent 30, 40, 50 percent or more of many state or local school populations. From both a practical and political perspective we need to make schools responsive to the needs of this growing population.

## Implications for Personnel Development

As we are propelled toward the twenty-first century, educators will require new approaches to preservice training in order to prepare them for the challenges they will face. They will need skills for teaching students with a broad range of needs in integrated settings. Sensitivity to and acceptance of the multiplicity of races, cultures and abilities apparent in most classrooms will be critical to developing a positive learning environment. Willingness to collaborate with colleagues from different disciplines and perspectives will foster the ability to make curricular adaptations and instructional modifications. Given that teacher education programs are slow to change and typically require internal (i.e., departmental, school and college curriculum committees) and external (i.e., State Department of Education, CSPD, legislature) approvals, it is necessary to begin the process immediately. We cannot continue to train and certify personnel who are not equipped to deal with the dynamic school environment in which they will work.

### Teaching personnel

We must establish a collaborative model of teacher preparation. Sapon-Shevin (1988) notes that "special educators and regular educators have jointly participated in a system that has divided and separated teachers in the same way that it has categorized and isolated students" (p. 106). Sapon-Shevin goes on to suggest that the lack of "parallel discourse" between the two, often distinct, teaching professions is an impediment to educational reform as it impacts the integration of students with disabilities. Others would agree that a lack of discussion among colleagues both within schools and within Schools of Education is a major hindrance to reform movements (Norlander, Shaw, Case, & Reich, 1990). Changes in the way we educate children must be preceded by reform in the way we educate teachers and ultimately in the way we certify teachers (Pugach, 1987).

This collaborative model should include regular and special education trainees participating in many of the same courses in an integrated teacher preparation program. At the early stages all students should be involved in clinical experiences in a variety of settings with divergent student populations. Seminars and supervision of clinical experiences should provide opportunities for both special and regular education faculty to share their expertise and perceptions across the spectrum of trainees (elementary and secondary, regular and special education). At the University of Connecticut we have had success with regular and special education faculty team teaching or cooperatively teaching courses. Specialized training for regular classroom teachers must include topics such as classroom organization, behavior management, pre-referral interventions, cooperative learning, peermedia interventions, and other approaches necessary to succeed with a broad range of students in the classroom (Salen, 1990; Wiederholt, 1989). Specific



"methods" training for special educators should include collaborative consultation, team teaching, communication and other skills necessary to be an effective member of an instructional team.

The issue of clinical training sites is addressed by Pugach (1987). She stresses that if prospective educators are going to develop their skills in the field, we must assure that the clinical sites are models of effective instruction and effective schools. To that end, Schools of Education must form cooperative relationships with local schools. In this way, college resources can be used to develop and evaluate model program efforts in collaboration with the schools. Details of this approach have been provided by Calder in this monograph.

### Leadership personnel

Leadership training programs can no longer train either teacher educators or researchers. If an inclusionary model of school reform is to be a reality, then future college professors and administrators must be data-based school practitioners. Doctoral programs must have integrated training, research and leadership/policy components. Ideally, doctoral students should be doing applied research in schools, addressing questions which will impact on school quality and effectiveness.

All of the school effectiveness literature identifies the principal as one of the most important elements to school reform. Local Board of Education members and higher education administrators are also key to enhancing access to public school and post secondary education for all students. Leadership training programs providing knowledge, improved attitudes and skills to help these policy makers better serve the full range of students within their institutions would be most beneficial.

Leadership training programs are ideal vehicles for encouraging school reform, providing administrative personnel to implement reform programs and supervisory personnel to develop cooperative relationship in the schools. We need both college-based and school-based leaders who will educate, supervise and encourage the teachers for all required in the years to come. Hewett and Wagner (1989) said it best:

Teacher heroics can and do exist, but both special and regular education reformers had better not take them for granted. They had better begin assembling the resources, supportive services and funding necessary to nurture and develop extraordinary teacher motivation and effort. For no matter what research studies and program designs have to offer, teacher competence, dedication, and yes heroics will be the ultimate determiners of successful reform in special and regular education. (p. 99)

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## Is It A New View?: Catching Up With 94-142

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Special Education and school reform was a major topic which was addressed at the 1990 Forum on Emerging Trends in Special Education. This paper provides a synopsis of issues discussed and the recommendations made regarding those topics.

Policy recommendations for the field and subsequent recommendations for awarding grants are designed to encourage development of projects that increase general and special education collaboration. Such projects are needed for schools to serve a full range of students in a collaborative model by infusing special education policies and practices into general education. It is imperative that these projects also be designed to include teaching staff, principals, school district administrators, school board members, and teacher trainers at the preservice and in-service levels.

### Main Issues and Solutions

In order for a collaborative/infusionary model to be effected successfully, two basic issues need to be dealt with: (a) Does a general education-special education collaborative focus require alteration in the regulations that determine the worthiness of a United States Department of Education (USDE) application for discretionary funds? and (b) Does this view require any changes in P.L. 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Act and its amendments? Heretofore, the collaborative model called for the special educator to act as a liaison to interpret and facilitate meeting the needs of handicapped students in the least restrictive environment. Often the desired setting was the "mainstream", thus working with general educators has and will continue to be an important special education function. Since facilitating students' successes in the least restrictive environment, including the mainstream, is integral to the special educators' mission, collaboration with general education should receive more formal acknowledgement.

The three operative words that have been used in this model are normalization, integration and mainstreaming. These descriptors are not separate in the parent handbook put out by TAPP (Technical Assistance for Parent Programs; Biklen, Ferguson, & Ford, 1989). They are incorporated in the following statement, "Taken at face value, P.L. 94-142 expresses a strong preference for integration; that is, placement in the "least restrictive" or "most normal" educational setting." (p. 7)



Considering the recent research on the changing needs of our school children as well as our society, diversity of need is the norm (Baca, 1984). This inclusionary model (Biklen et al., 1989), designed to serve special education students in the regular classroom, may be the best approach toward delivering educational services not only to students with specific disabilities but for all students. All teachers, staff, site principals, district administrators, and school board members must be aware of and knowledgeable about the best practices for delivery of services to the diverse need of today's school children. With this interpretation there is no need to ask the local education agencies (LEA) to waive the rights of handicapped students for specialized services in order to put in place a full scaled mainstreaming model. The monitoring of the specific needs of the handicapped student will still be intact.

The federal regulations that guide the disbursement of discretionary funds in the Department of Personnel Preparation specifically states, under B. Criterion 2- Capacity of the Instruction,

"The quality of the practicum training setting, including evidence that they are sufficiently available, apply state-of-the-art services, and model teaching practices, materials and technology, provide adequate supervision to trainees, and offer opportunities for trainees to teach and foster interaction between students with handicaps and their non-handicapped peers".

These words spell out the spirit of the law and can be interpreted as an encouragement to develop a model that includes special and general education students in the same design.

#### Obstacles to Obtaining the Ideal

In establishing this inclusionary model many issues need to be resolved. The three major issues to consider are (a) graduation requirements, (b) transition, and (c) content and curriculum. The regular education system can in part be determined by its distribution of benefits (Green, Ericson, & Seidman, 1980). The rewards are medium of exchange. A diploma, transcripts, and licenses are affidavits that verify a certain level of attainment and are negotiable for acceptance in schools of higher education and the world of work. The reward after completing twelve years of schooling in special education often results in a Certificate of Attendance which has little or no value as a medium of exchange. Therefore, graduation requirements as well as negotiable outcomes need to become more congruent with general education in this inclusionary model.

Transition which is a next step from graduation has been an issue in the reauthorization of EHA Amendments of 1986 (P.L. 99-457) during the 101st Congress. Testimony indicates the importance of incorporating transition into the school plan for

handicapped children as early as seventh grade (Rusch, 1990). This, as well as other promising practices, demand that the schools and the transition process be integrated. On the issue of curriculum and content, research indicates that in cooperative learning (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Wells, 1981) and in content focused curriculum (Bloom, 1988), more learning takes place than with transitional methods of delivery of educational services. This research, coupled with the long history of successful methods and materials used in special education, especially those of classroom management, can be the grounds on which to design and develop a better delivery of educational services for all. Therefore, it is necessary that a working relationship between special and general education be developed in which content and curriculum is a central focus.

In order to pursue best practices it is not necessary to alter P.L. 94-142 nor is there need to alter the regulations that govern the disbursements of discretionary funds from the Department of Personnel Preparation. An inclusionary collaborative model, including newest research on best practices, can be a focus for the grant applicants. Projects that deal with collaboration between special and general education designed to infuse special education policies and practices into general education need to be encouraged. These projects cannot only concern themselves with teacher training but need to include staff, site principals, school administrators, and school board members.

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# **Restructuring Teacher Education: One Group's Perspective**

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## **Defining the Issues**

This paper focuses on the issues of restructuring teacher education for general educators, special educators and leadership personnel. Specifically, it discusses undergraduate, graduate and leadership program changes needed to meet the new challenges of preparing competent classroom teachers to educate today's youth.

Recruiting and selecting high caliber students to major in education is a key to improving the current educational dilemma. Specifically, teachers should be educated in liberal arts, professional education and have a rigorous clinical experience.

**Pre-Professional.** This component is concerned with the intellectual qualities of an educated, thoughtful and well informed individual. The intent is to provide professional educators with sound subject matter background. The pre-professional aspects of the program depend upon the prospective teacher having obtained a quality liberal arts education. The subject matter and concepts learned should provide the foundation for the information presented in the professional aspects of the program.

**Professional Education.** This component should be founded on scholarship and empirical research and emphasize the following:

1. The study of teaching and schooling as an academic field with its own identity.
2. The knowledge of pedagogy - students master the capacity to translate personal knowledge into interpersonal knowledge, used for teaching.
3. The skills and understanding implicit in classroom teaching - creating a communal setting where various groups of students can develop and learn.
4. The values and ethical responsibilities that distinguish teaching from other professions.

**Clinical Experience.** The clinical aspects of the program must integrate the pre-professional components into rigorous experiences where formal knowledge is used as a guide to practical action. This segment of the program should take place in a Professional Development Center (PDC) located in either a

suburban, rural or urban school district. These centers should provide an environment where the most up-to-date, research-based instructional practices and programs can be observed and experienced by those preparing for professional careers in education. The Professional Development Center is a collaboration effort among school/university faculty and students to enhance public education. The partnership is founded on the premise that learners are the primary focus. The staff of the Professional Development Center should seek to achieve the following goals.

1. The best possible environment for student academic learning and personal self-fulfillment.
2. Opportunities for preservice and career-long professional learning and development of teachers.
3. Ongoing access to the best knowledge and talent related to student learning and development.

The need for infusion of teacher preparation curricula for preservice education majors must also be considered. Specifically, the following are recommended:

1. Early experiences in any teacher preparation program should be integrated with other experience. Early childhood, elementary, middle school, high school and special education majors should have a common core of course work/seminars/clinical experiences. A segment of this core should takeplace in a Professional Development Center.
2. Specialization should build on the integrated experiences of students and include a core of coursework/seminars/clinical experiences. A majority of students' study in their field of specialization should take place in a Professional Development Center. The infusion process should be enhanced during this experience, because students majoring in different fields will be provided an opportunity to interact with others participating in similar programs.
3. Clinical experiences should be rigorous and take place in Professional Development Centers. Early clinical experience should take place in an integrated setting, while latter experiences should be directly related to an individual's area of specialization. Students should have suburban, rural and urban clinical experiences prior to graduation. The Professional Development Centers should be a cooperative effort between university faculty and school districts staff and should include joint appointments.



Another area of concern relates to the preparation of competent leadership personnel to function in preservice teacher education programs. In this regard, leadership personnel should:

1. Be competent to function as teacher educators and should have applied experience and background.
2. Be role models and have the competency to function as a clinical professor.
3. Have the necessary competencies to work with others in Professional Development Centers.
4. Have the necessary competencies to deal with the dynamics of school politics.
5. Have the capacity to conduct applied research and use data and research results to solve classroom problems.
6. Have the ability to interact with regular educators and be a "team player" in the preparation of classroom teachers.
7. Be familiar with both quantitative and qualitative research methods.
8. Be a generalist within the field of special education.
9. Have an interdisciplinary experience as an integral segment of their leadership preparation program.
10. Be competent to utilize the most up-to-date technology and research tools.

### Recommendations

It is recommended that any university planning to restructure their teacher education program should consider the aforementioned suggestions. The structure of various teacher preparation programs may differ, but the following options are mandatory: (a) a four year undergraduate program, with students graduating with a bachelor's degree; (b) a five year program, with students graduating with a bachelor's and a master's degree; and (c) a one year program for students having achieved a bachelor's degree, with students graduating with a master's degree. Obviously, the proposed components of a restructured teacher education program can be modified to meet the needs of a specific college or university.

This preceding section also relates to restructuring leadership training programs. Thus, leadership training programs must take into consideration the competencies and experiences required of teacher educators to implement and conduct preservice preparation programs advocated for in this paper.

# **Restructuring Teacher Education: The Integration of Undergraduate Curriculum**

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The concept of restructuring teacher education encompasses and impacts a part of every other topic presented at the 1990 Forum on Emerging Trends. The group was assigned the specific task of brainstorming "restructuring teacher education" as it related to special education and the overall reform movement in education. The ideas presented here are representative of that group's work.

According to (Watkins, 1990a) the 21st century educator will be an individual who has completed a professional teacher preparation program and who possesses teaching and research skills. Preparation of such a professional would influence the way the field now prepares general and special educators. Such a change would cause teacher preparation to focus on training all teachers to teach all students (Education Week, 1990) (e.g., students with disabilities and students with above average abilities).

## **Defining the Issues**

Special education teacher education is comprised of a variety of training systems. Each state, and often each university, employs different procedural standards, methodologies, and certification tracks. These training systems may require an individual to be certified or licensed first in general education and then to pursue a general special education endorsement at the baccalaureate level. These programs often permit specialized categorical training only at the graduate level. Other programs allow special education licensure to be given at the baccalaureate level without the inclusion of regular education training. The four members of this task group represented four different states and four different system requirements. As noted previously, diversity in requirements and standards appears to be the case throughout the country. At the present time over one hundred different certifications are available in special education.

The educational reform movement encompasses all facets of the American education system. Given current practices (e.g., lack of reciprocity among the states), the field appears to be looking at school reform for conflict resolution. Just as schools strive to improve opportunities for mainstreaming so should teacher education work to prepare educators for that setting. The reform of the American education system requires the simultaneous reform of the teacher education system (Watkins, 1990b).

## Alternative Solutions: Integration of Systems

Integrating two separate, but similar systems, was the central theme on which our forum group focused. In an interview with Tom Skrtic, Thousand (1990) mentions the collapsing of two bureaucracies, and coordination by working together to invent unique teaching practices in order to produce the "name product" (p. 32). The restructuring of teacher education committee envisioned school reform as an element of integration of general and special education. Some school systems have developed ways to assist special education teachers in integrated settings to become versed on curriculum and teaching approaches. These efforts have included in-service training, allowing teachers to spend time observing general education classrooms, and developing collaborative models (Lehr, 1987). However, such education occurs subsequent to preservice training. If all students are to be educated in integrated settings, integration must be a part of preservice teacher preparation. Thus, if the field is to actually reform American education to the degree that every child has the right to learn in the same educational setting as every other child, a true partnership must be cultivated between regular education and special education professionals.

## Inhibitors to Obtaining the Ideal

From 1975 to 1983, the Division of Personnel Preparation awarded grants to universities and colleges through a competition referred to as the Dean's Grants. The purpose was to implement models targeted at the infusion of special education concepts in the general education curriculum (Aksamit, 1990). While some successes were reported, generally this approach was resisted by both general and special educators. The general educators were not academically or experientially prepared to address special education issues and curricula adaptations in their courses. Special educators were equally concerned about their general education colleagues' inability to enthusiastically teach and demonstrate techniques uniquely designed to ensure that the needs of handicapped students would be met within general education (L.M. Bullock, personal communication, February 6, 1990). Therefore, the traditional method of training general education teachers in special education techniques has continued to be to add courses to existing general education requirements. Today's public school students have needs arising from diverse family structures, and other differences (Patterson, Furkey, & Parker, 1986). These challenges may be best tackled by merging the best that general and special education have to offer.

## Strategies for Moving Toward the Ideal

In order to accomplish this merger, teacher education courses would combine regular education and special education classes. Ultimately, there would no longer be two separate course structures. Separate course structures have long been viewed as repetitive and redundant (Reynolds, 1982). These new

courses would best be team taught by faculty who represent the orientations of both general and special education. In this way, students would have the full benefit of learning a variety of adaptations for each technique/method taught.

This integration of systems was only reviewed by the forum restructuring committee in the context of teaching individuals with mild disabilities. The group was unanimous in their opinion that all teachers of students with special needs must first be educated in basic teaching principles. The committee agree that trainees wishing to work with students with severe disabilities must acquire additional knowledge in an area of specialization. Brogenschild, Lauritzen, and Metzke (1988) reported on an attrition study indicating that teachers who educate students with more severe disabilities remain on the job longer when they have more education in a specific disability content area. Accordingly, the restructuring committee recommended that teachers of students with severe and low incidence disabilities have additional training requirements beyond the basic special education level.

The restructuring committee did not equate having more specialized training with needing to teach in a segregated environment. Rather, specialized training would be used to create new learning environments and aid in further integration of students with severe disabilities into typical education settings with their normally developing and age appropriate peers.

In a perfect merger everybody wins: such a merger was the goal of the forum conference restructuring committee. This objective is interpreted to mean that every child has the right to learn and grow in the same educational setting as every other child. In the process of restructuring and reforming education systems, we must not lose sight of this common goal of general and special education.

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\*This article was co-authored by the writer in her private capacity. No official support or endorsement by the Department of Education is intended or should be inferred.



# **Professional Development Centers: A Collaborative Model**

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## **Defining the Issue**

Educational reform has increasingly focused on improving the professional status and the professional learning and development of teachers. Although the focus on regulation and accountability that was revived in the early 1980's has not dissipated, recent analysis and recommendations for reform have emphasized the development of the teaching profession as the most feasible approach for upgrading the quality of classroom practice and learning opportunities for students (e.g., Maeroff, 1988; Meatens & Yarger, 1988).

A number of reports (Holmes Group (1986), Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy (1986) and Governors' 1991 Report on Education (1986) have been very critical of schools and how teachers are selected, educated and licensed. Each of these reports emphasize the importance of recruiting and selecting high caliber students to major in education.

The Holmes Group, Carnegie Forum and Governors's Report have provided an impetus for new initiatives which expand teachers' roles in their own professional learning and development, in developing curriculum and instructional programs, and in improving the conditions of their schools as places to work and learn. They have also provided direction for the improvement of preservice teacher education and the learning opportunities available to beginning and experienced teachers.

These reports emphasize the importance of the linkage of schools and school districts to other institutions and the development of partnerships around issues of common interest and concern. One of the most potentially powerful of these collaborative efforts are partnerships between schools and colleges of education. Specifically, these reports have recommended the establishment and implementation of clinical models of teacher education and the formation of Professional Development Centers.

These recommended partnerships may have an immediate impact on the preparation of teacher educators. Thus, individuals being prepared for leadership roles in higher education will need to understand the concept of Professional Development Centers and their specific function in the preservice training of classroom teachers.

Teacher educators must be competent in skills needed to work collaboratively in a school environment with college students, classroom teachers, administrators and children. They will also

need a broader understanding of the total curriculum and how it impacts on students with learning problems. Educational leaders must also be educated as teacher educators who truly understand the competencies required by a classroom teacher to become reflective and analytical in their selection of instructional strategies, methods and materials.

### Alternative Solution

Many universities are experimenting with the establishment of Professional Development Centers in a response to the national challenge to improve the quality of teacher preparation programs. Professional Development Centers serve as model sites for supervised clinical experiences and facilitate the transition of theory and research into practice. The centers provide an environment where the most up-to-date research-based instructional practices and programs can be observed and experienced by those preparing to be teachers and/or administrators.

These clinical experiences should be sequenced, analytical, rigorous, and take place in different settings and with a variety of learners. These centers also provide an environment where teachers can use principles and theories to analyze, hypothesize, and improve instructional and learning conditions. Professional preparation embodies broad cultural knowledge, specialized knowledge and guided practice.

Professional preparation programs must emphasize analytical experiences in order for practitioners to be able to combine various bodies of knowledge into strategies for meeting changing or unique circumstances. Such programs also emphasize educators learning to know why things are as they are and for satisfying the passion to know more in order to improve existing conditions.

A major component of any teacher preparation program should be the formation of Professional Development Centers. Expanded collaborative relationships with colleagues in selected schools are a necessity to achieve this goal. Staff members of Professional Development Centers must be committed to collaborative efforts in clinical preparation, applied research, and continuing professional development of all parties. Preparation must present a carefully sequenced series of clinical experiences. Each clinical aspect must integrate pre-professional and professional components into a rigorous experience where formal knowledge is used as a guide to practical action. Clinical components must be analytical, with an opportunity for students' inductive learning. Clinical experiences should include an opportunity for observation and experimentation. They should also include contact with a wide variety of students at differing age levels, and with varying learning abilities. The Professional Development Centers should be located in a variety of socioeconomic settings and reflect a state's population characteristics.

The teachers and administrators in the Professional Development Centers and those faculty members from the school of education working with a district need to work collaboratively to develop programs and instructional strategies. The Professional Development Center concept requires that curricula and instructional strategies be designed to model research-based practices and learning models discussed in university's teacher preparation programs. Professional Development Center teachers and administrators and university faculty must work together to create a learning environment which accommodates both teacher education theory and practice.

Professional Development Center faculty should be teachers who are jointly selected by a university and school district personnel to be clinical supervisors and/or instructors. These faculty should have the ability to supervise students in clinical experiences, and internships, and to teach "practice based" classes. They should be joined by university faculty members in collaborative efforts to model effective classroom practices, to teach education majors the research-based practices that impact on student achievement, and to supervise clinical experiences.

Selected members of Professional Development Centers should be given the title of clinical supervisor or clinical assistant professor. The following guidelines should be used in selecting teachers for this new role:

1. Selected individuals must be outstanding (mentors) teachers.
2. Selected individuals must receive appropriate training for their role.
3. Individuals should be able to supervise field experiences, teach selected college courses in the professional sequence, and evaluate students in areas where they have the appropriate expertise and approval from a university.
4. Individuals should be involved in the development and evaluation of teacher education programs.
5. Some clinical professors may be jointly employed by a university and school district.

A program designed to meet these goals should:

1. Be developmental and sequential. A number of different clinical experiences is essential in preparing professional educators. These experiences should be developmental in scope, sequential in nature, and provide an individual with a variety of learning opportunities.

2. Include various stages of a clinical experience which has purpose for students as well as the faculties of the cooperating school and the school of education. Professional Developmental Centers provide an environment for school-based action research to take place. This research should meet the interest and needs of school children, college students, and faculties of the cooperating schools, and the school of education. Focus should be on analysis of students' individual needs.
3. Include collaborative efforts which are clearly articulated and flexible. Thus, constant planning and evaluation is critical if the collaborative Professional Development Centers are to be successful.
4. Include clinical experiences which are knowledge-based and reflect the best research information currently available to students, teachers, and faculty.
5. Include clinical experiences which reflect the social, political, psychological and organizational setting within an ethical and moral framework.

#### Obstacles, Barriers and Inhibitors to Obtaining the Ideal

The establishment of Professional Development Centers requires extensive planning between university faculty members, school district staff, administrators and local boards of education. There are several concerns regarding the planning and implementation of a Professional Development Center.

1. School districts may be overwhelmed by the Professional Development Center concept and concerned with the impact on their staff and students.
2. Planning and implementation of a Professional Development Center requires a collaborative effort, a process which may be difficult to achieve.
3. Appropriate funds and time must be made available to a Professional Development Center staff.
4. University reward systems for tenure and promotion may limit faculty commitment to Professional Development Centers.
5. Unions and their established work rules may inhibit implementation of a Professional Development Center.
6. Selection of classroom teachers who are competent to make significant contributions to the Professional Development Center concept may be difficult.



7. Selection of university faculty who are competent to make constructive contributions to the Professional Development Concept may be difficult.
8. Identification of university faculty members who are willing to become part of a professional team teach and spend extensive time in a school may limit implementation of Professional Development Center.

Many of these obstacles can be minimized or eliminated with careful planning and cooperation. This process will initially require a series of small group meetings to develop the concept of a Professional Development Center and its purpose.

These small group meetings should subsequently be expanded to include larger numbers of individuals from a university and school district, including school board members and parents. All participants should have an opportunity to react and make recommendations.

Ultimately, a partnership agreement should be developed between a university and school district. The agreement should spell out the specific roles of the university and school district, as well as the length of the partnership. This agreement should be accepted by both parties.

#### Strategies for Moving Toward the Ideal

To accomplish these goals, the following stages are suggested:

Stage One - Collaborative Planning: Professional Developmental Center staff and the university faculty should meet to:

1. Establish the procedures and guidelines for collaboration.
2. Agree on the goals of clinical preparation and identify and define the range of possibilities.
3. Define roles of all members of the Collaborative Professional Development Centers.
4. Establish the sequence of effective clinical opportunities.
5. Begin pilot operations in selected schools during an academic year.

Stage Two - Implementation: The program planned in Stage One should be implemented in one school at a time. The following procedures should be considered when implementing the Collaborative Professional Development Centers:



**Clinical Experiences:** The clinical experience should represent the preservice teacher's first structured experience in a public school. This experience should emphasize active participation in a classroom combined with the opportunity to analyze and reflect on that experience both in seminars and in one-on-one conferences. These experiences should be integrated and required of all preservice majors.

**Extended Clinical Experiences:** The second clinical experience should expand on those activities from the first year through increased exposure to the teacher/learning process with students possessing a wide variety of abilities. Clinical experience during the early stages of this segment of the program should provide students with an opportunity to teach small groups and full classes related to their area of specialization. This clinical experience should place increased emphasis on decision-making with the opportunity to analyze and reflect on that experience both in seminars and one-on-one conferences.

**Intensive Clinical Experience:** During the third clinical experience preservice teachers might teach children of different cultural backgrounds and/or with learning problems. Emphasis would be on the role of the teacher as a decision-maker and leader. Demonstrating the ability to plan, teach, evaluate and self-evaluate would be essential components of a successful clinical experience.

**Continued Professional Development:** The above three clinical experiences are related to preservice preparation. Inherent in these activities is the expectation that preservice teachers, university faculty and teachers will engage in continuous personal and professional development. In addition, all school and university faculty should participate in development activities of a Professional Development Center.

**Stage Three - Evaluation and Revision:** Data and related information must be collected, analyzed, and used to make program modifications.

## **Conclusion**

It is anticipated that a preservice student who completes the proposed sequence of clinical experiences in a Professional Development Center would be a professional educator who is a decision-maker in the areas of planning, presentation, and assessment. Professional Development Center Schools could become "model schools" where teachers and administrators come to observe the newest program and approaches to teaching and learning. These schools could provide rural, urban and suburban districts with much needed opportunities to review the newest and most effective educational practices. These schools would also be

excellent sites for testing new programs and practices and for conducting research needed to respond to problems facing today's educators.

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# Leadership Training for Teacher Educators

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## Defining the Issue

Education of special educators and education of general educators has evolved from different origins and proceeded in different directions. Thus, while both are usually (but not always) housed in a single college or professional school, there has traditionally been only minimal overlap between the two fields. Initial training of general educators, typically, includes one segregated course in special education, taught in isolation from the rest of the curriculum and rarely integrated with "regular" methods courses or practica. Initial training for special educators typically follows one of two models: special training in isolation from general educators, with little or no overlap with general education course work or practica, or, using an additive model, superimposing segregated special education training and certification on an initial, equally segregated general education base. The preparation of education leadership personnel in general, and special education in particular, has largely followed this pattern as well. Accordingly, special and general education courses have largely been separate from each other with the possible exception of research methodology and statistics. Thus the "unwritten curriculum" of both teacher preparation and leadership preparation tends to perpetuate the conceptualization of two (or more) distinct types of students, general and special; and two (or more) separate bureaucracies to deal with their respective needs.

Indeed, leadership preparation within special education is becoming increasingly fragmented, with doctoral programs appearing in such areas as transition of severely retarded individuals, research in learning disabilities, policy analysis, administration of vocational education, and technology. Training in these areas is largely divorced from the main body of special education as well as from general education.

The national effort to "infuse" special education into general teacher education programs through the so-called "Deans' Grants" has generally been unsuccessful. While funding was available, some minimal changes occurred, yet disappeared with cessation of federal support. Nevertheless, it is becoming increasingly important that general and special education preparation approximate one another. Both objective data on mainstreaming successes and dictates of educational law and public policy make it imperative that the isolation of the two fields from each other be reduced.

In the remainder of this paper we will offer suggestions for teacher education and leadership preparation, both in special

education and general education, to begin the process of implementing this ideal.

### Alternative Solutions

One proposed way to bridge the gap between general and special education is to prepare future leaders in both fields to understand and respect the others' world and to work cooperatively in an interdisciplinary program. By interdisciplinary (as opposed to multidisciplinary or transdisciplinary) we mean cooperative instruction and responsibility throughout students' programs, as opposed to segregated courses in several disciplines.

Such an approach assumes that leadership personnel will be role models to individuals being educated as teachers. Leadership professionals' modes of instruction, administration and/or research must reflect not only the content but the value of interdisciplinary cooperation. In this regard, entry criteria for admission to a leadership training program would, in addition to the usual scores and grades include:

- \* Substantial classroom teaching experience or other appropriate experiences, even for individuals being trained as researchers or policy analysts.
- \* Interviews designed to determine potential leader's interest in, and ability to work cooperatively with general educators and other related disciplines.

As a part of their training program, these future leaders should:

1. Demonstrate ease and comfort in working cooperatively with colleagues in education.
2. Demonstrate ability to understand and deal with public school policies.
3. Be given the opportunity to work in a Professional Development Center or other exemplary practicum center.
4. Receive training in multiple research paradigms and methodologies, including large and small-N quantitative methods, ethnographic methods, case analysis and historiography.
5. Receive training in the use of applied classroom research methods to solve problems in mainstream classroom (e.g., action research).
6. Have experiences with technologies, including--but not limited to--computer applications.

7. Receive training in multiple instructional techniques for teaching college courses and conducting in-service. Such training should include traditional lecture and seminar approaches, cooperative learning, peer coaching, team teaching, case analysis and other novel educational methods.
8. Take a common core of substantive course work with peers from other educational leadership programs.

Exposure of future special education leaders and general education leaders will potentially create more awareness and sensitivity to both the unique and common needs of these groups.

### Obstacles, Barriers and Inhibitors to Implementing Solutions

There are several barriers and obstacles to attaining interdisciplinary skills, knowledge and attitudes. While not insurmountable, they do present difficulties in moving toward the ideal, as stated above.

The first barrier relates to the availability of appropriate higher education and public mentors and role models. The status quo, and the reward system of universities, are largely structured to favor solo performance, both in research and in teaching. It is unlikely that, even in some very prestigious universities, plentiful examples of interdisciplinary instruction and problem solving will be found. And, as the Deans' Grants and other efforts have shown, the institutionalization of change in higher education is very difficult.

Second, a program of preparation such as that described above would be lengthy and expensive. Full time study would be a necessity to achieve the necessary level of interaction with peers, mentors and public school personnel. For many potential leaders, especially those with families or those who are in mid-career, the costs of such an education might be prohibitive. Competition from "cheaper", less intensive part-time doctoral programs could be expected to increase and to be even more appealing, especially to people who will be assuming leadership positions within a school system.

### Strategies for Moving Toward the Ideal

Several strategies can be envisioned for moving toward the implementation of ideal leadership training program. These are delineated below as suggestions for OSERS and for the field. Thus, in order to facilitate interdisciplinary preparation, OSERS might change the nature of its funding for leadership training programs in several ways.

First, funding criteria for both teacher education and leadership grants could be altered to reward interdisciplinary education, such as team-taught pro-seminars, inclusion of general



education faculty on decision-making committees, commitment of time by non-special education faculty, affiliation with a Professional Development Center, and a common core of course work and experience.

Second, OSERS' guidelines could be altered to limit the proportion of budgets that could be used to support tenure-line or part-time faculty. Institutions with on-going programs would thus be encouraged to apply primarily for student stipends at realistically high levels, thereby increasing the availability of monies for student training.

Third, a conference series sponsored by OSERS or an appropriate professional organization could be convened. Leaders in general education and special education could be asked to discuss common interests and barriers.

Finally, researchers in special education, especially those concerned with applied classroom research, could be invited to share results with and receive input from special education leaders. Such an interchange would be designed to facilitate more effective resource utilization and evaluation methodology. Coordination between the United States Department of Education Personnel Preparation and Innovation and Development branches might facilitate such an interchange.

## **State Certification**

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### **Defining the Issue**

Certification for special education and related service personnel is in a state of flux (Smith-Davis, 1989). Policies and procedures for special education certification have recently become heated topics, with debate being fueled by special education personnel shortages and school reform movements.

The magnitude of the special education personnel shortage is perpetuated by an increase in the number of students enrolled in preservice training programs and an increase in attrition in the field. Approximately 26,798 special education teachers were needed as of October 1, 1988 (Office of Special Education programs, 1989). Because of unique geographical, cultural, economic and social characteristics, the impact of the special education personnel shortage appears to be most severe in rural and urban school districts. These trends are particularly troublesome in light of projected increases in demand for new teachers (e.g., Part H teachers and teachers for children with emotional/behavioral problems) caused by rising student enrollment (e.g., young children age 3-5 and minority students) and anticipated increases in teacher retirements (Darling-Hammond, 1988).

Because of the persistent teacher shortage in special education, virtually all states had provisions for temporary or emergency certification before 1983 (Darling-Hammond, 1988). In several states, almost 40% of special education teachers in schools are not appropriately certified in special education. It is conceivable that any one student with emotional/behavioral problems or other handicapping conditions may go through his/her

entire elementary school experience without being taught by a certified special education teacher. The percentage of personnel without appropriate certification in many states has reached an intolerable level. The demand for qualified personnel, the problem of emergency certification, and other pressures have led to a growing interest in alternative routes to teacher certification. Approximately 23 states have adopted alternative certification to curb the shortage in the areas of math, science, and special education. In addition, alternative certification has been proposed as an effective means for minority recruitment and retention (Baird, 1990). Although there is some evidence that general education personnel are able to produce impressive student outcomes (Feistritz, 1989; Graham, 1989; McKibbin, 1988; Smith-Davis, 1989), a concern for "safe to practice" in special education is widely acknowledged among special education teacher trainers. Further suggestions are that safeguard procedures be developed by the special education profession prior to implementation of alternative certification programs. Unfortunately, if teacher shortages continue to grow, the pressure on institutions of higher education (IHEs) to produce qualified personnel will be even greater. Thus, it is no longer possible to ignore this problem.

The school reform movement has intensified efforts to professionalize teacher education and to improve the quality of teacher preparation and student performance. Most institutions of higher education engaged in special education personnel preparation have been involved in the NCATE/CEC accreditation process as a means of adhering to a "profession". Thus, the Standards for the Preparation of Special Education Personnel (Government Relations and Professional Advocacy, 1987) must be addressed as a precondition to NCATE accreditation (Wade, 1989). In addition, professional groups, such as the Holmes Group, propose an increase in educational requirements for future teachers as part of their school reform recommendations, although a concern for the feasibility of such a proposal has been raised in light of teacher shortages. In a related situation, the American Speech and Hearing Association (ASHA) recently adopted new licensing standards which require graduate level training. This change has resulted in some public school speech and language personnel no longer being eligible for licensing (McLaughlin, Smith-Davis, & Burke, 1986).

During the 1980's, many states reformed their teacher education, licensing, and compensation processes through legislative enactments (Darling-Hammond, 1988). In their recent study, McLaughlin and associates (1986) report that of 57 jurisdictions represented, 37 (65%) have made some changes in their policies governing special education certification or have such changes pending before their boards of education or legislatures. Many states have taken steps to improve the quality of education through more stringent teacher licensing. Stern (1988) reported in 1987 that 45 states had enacted competency testing programs as part of the process of initially certifying

teachers, and 31 states required an examination in order to be admitted to a teacher education program. However, Darling-Hammond (1988) argues "If we can fix teaching by developing better regulations, there is no need to produce better educated teachers" (p.5). According to Smith-Davis (1989), "This development underscores the theme of interrelationships between issues of quality of services on quantity of personnel in education" (p.9). In other words, special education as a profession has been caught in a Catch-22 of its own making. While we strive for professionalizing special education, we must face reality -- the demand for qualified teachers to fill classroom.

### Alternative Solutions to the Problems of State Certification

The following section of this paper outlines several possible solutions to the issues surrounding state certification. Moreover, we discuss strategies for overcoming barriers in implementing these solutions. Solutions include narrowing the disparities in terminology, developing interstate agreements, and assessing alternative certification programs.

#### Narrow disparities in terminology, philosophy, and training practice:

No other disciplines in education are as conceptually and operationally confused as special education. A wide disparity in special education terminology, philosophical base, and training practice has created unnecessary bewilderment, not only for our own colleagues but for the general public. Evidence of inconsistency in title, standards, and requirements for special education can be easily found among states. The findings of a national certification study (i.e., Governmental Relations and Professional Advocacy, 1987) further substantiate this phenomenon:

1. From the manuals available, 181 different titles for teaching positions were listed.
2. States had as few as four and as many as fifteen different certification titles for teachers.
3. Twenty states list training requirements in terms of a number of credit hours while others use competencies/courses.
4. Eighteen states require dual certification for teaching children with special needs, the remainder require special education certification only.
5. Eight states require a master's degree or 5th year training for initial certification, others require only a bachelor's degree. (Governmental Relations and Professional Advocacy, 1987, p. 1-3).



If we are serious about professionalizing special education, we should "assume collective responsibility for the definition, transmittal, and enforcement of professional standards of practice and ethics" (Darling-Hammond, 1988, pp.8-9). Some suggest that it is necessary to redefine the certification categories for special education teachers and related personnel. Possible questions to be asked include the following: Can a new category of "motor skills specialist" be created to encompass occupational therapy and physical therapy, which are currently two separate categories? Should certification across related service categories be based on personnel functions and commonality of services rather than numerous discrete certification categories? Is dual certification better? Can special education attract students to the profession if dual certification is required? Can a unified terminology, standards, and training practice be developed and accepted?

#### Interstate certification agreements or reciprocity:

The purpose of interstate certification agreements is to provide for a simple and workable system under which school professionals educated or experienced in one state can have their qualifications recognized in many states without red tape or delay... Participation in interstate certification agreements can increase the availability of educational manpower (Baird, 1989). Approximately 35 states have interstate certification agreements, but they may or may not be able to recognize special education certification from other states because of variations in certification requirements for special education teachers. Gabrys (1989) notes that many variations occur in certification terminology and policy across the field of special education and that states have as few as four and as many as fifteen different certification titles for teachers (Governmental Relations and Professional Advocacy, 1987). Gabrys (1989) further illustrates: "a certificate in mental impairment may refer to instruction of mildly retarded students exclusively, while, in another state, a certification in mental retardation may cover instruction of mildly, moderately, and severely retarded students". (p.5)

Variations from state to state in training standards makes reciprocity difficult. We should ask ourselves whether children with autism in California are significantly different from children with autism in New York? Are the educational needs for children with learning problems in Connecticut much different from children with learning problems in Colorado? Are teacher competencies for serving these two types of children much different in Ohio and Kentucky? If answers to these three questions are negative, state regulations should support, rather than impede, the distribution of quality services to children with special needs. The differences, should they exist, may not be great enough to deny initial licensing of a teacher certified in another state (Gabrys, 1989). Recent data from a National Rural Teacher Certification Study reveal that 80 percent of survey subjects support certification reciprocity between all



states when applicants apply for rural teaching positions (NRTC, 1987) .

Most special education personnel preparation programs have been involved in the NCATE/CEC professional accreditation process. Because of this common link, an obvious question is whether NCATE/CEC or NASKTEC/CEC standards should be utilized to facilitate reciprocity in special education? It is recognized that Standards for the Preparation of Special Education Personnel (Governmental Relations and Professional Advocacy, 1983) may need to be revised in order to address issues such as generic vs. content specific, content vs. functional curriculum, and age and grade level of students. It is also understood that facilitating the employment of qualified special personnel without reference to their state origin would increase resources and offset shortages in some degree. Hence, the aforementioned options appear to have the potential of increasing the supply of special education teachers.

### Alternative certification programs

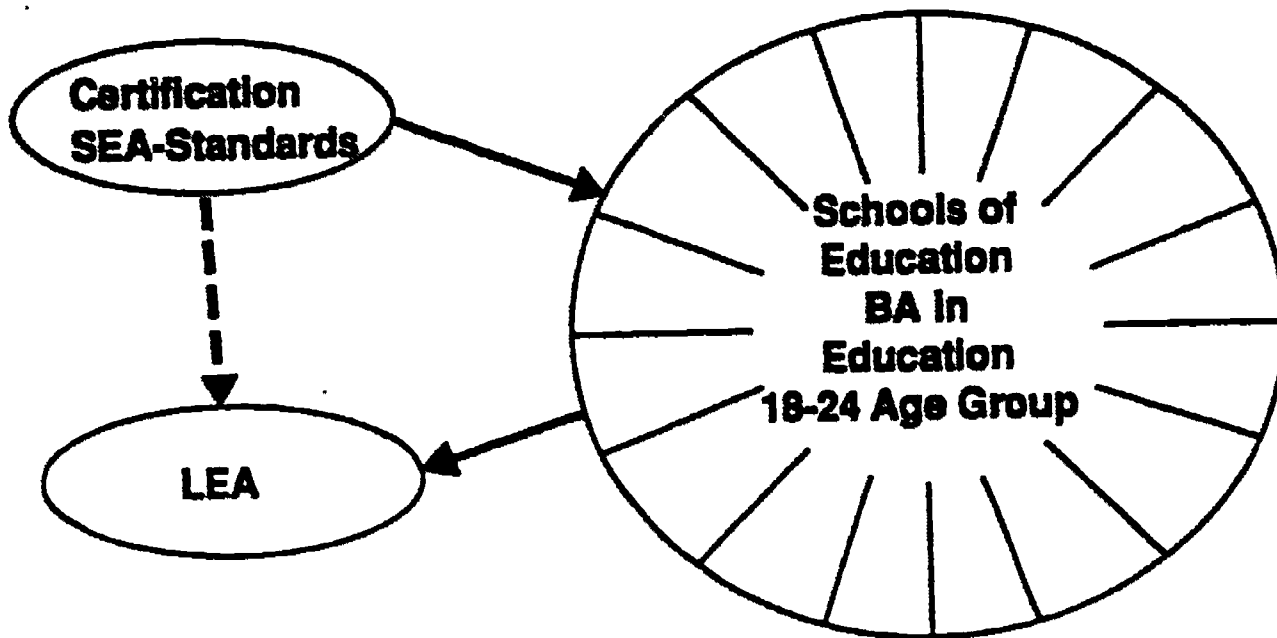
Non-traditional personnel preparation has gained attention because of acute personnel shortages and problems associated with emergency certification. The Association of Teacher Educators has issued "guidelines for alternative certification programs to try to insure that college graduates who become teachers without professional training meet minimum standards" (Commission of Alternative Certification, 1989). National data also indicate that 43 states allow emergency certification to offset shortages of traditionally prepared teachers, and 23 states offer alternative routes to certifications as a means of attracting individuals who would not or could not return to school for traditional teacher preparation (Baird, 1990).

Alternative teacher certification can be defined as any significant departure from traditional IHE teacher education options (Darling-Hammond, Hudson, & Kirby, 1989). Smith-Davis (1989) describes alternative programming as major or minor modifications in the route to teacher certification. In alternative programming, there is a shift of major training responsibility from institutions of higher education to local education associations. Baird (1989) compares and contrasts traditional certification and alternative certification in his diagram shown in Figure 1.

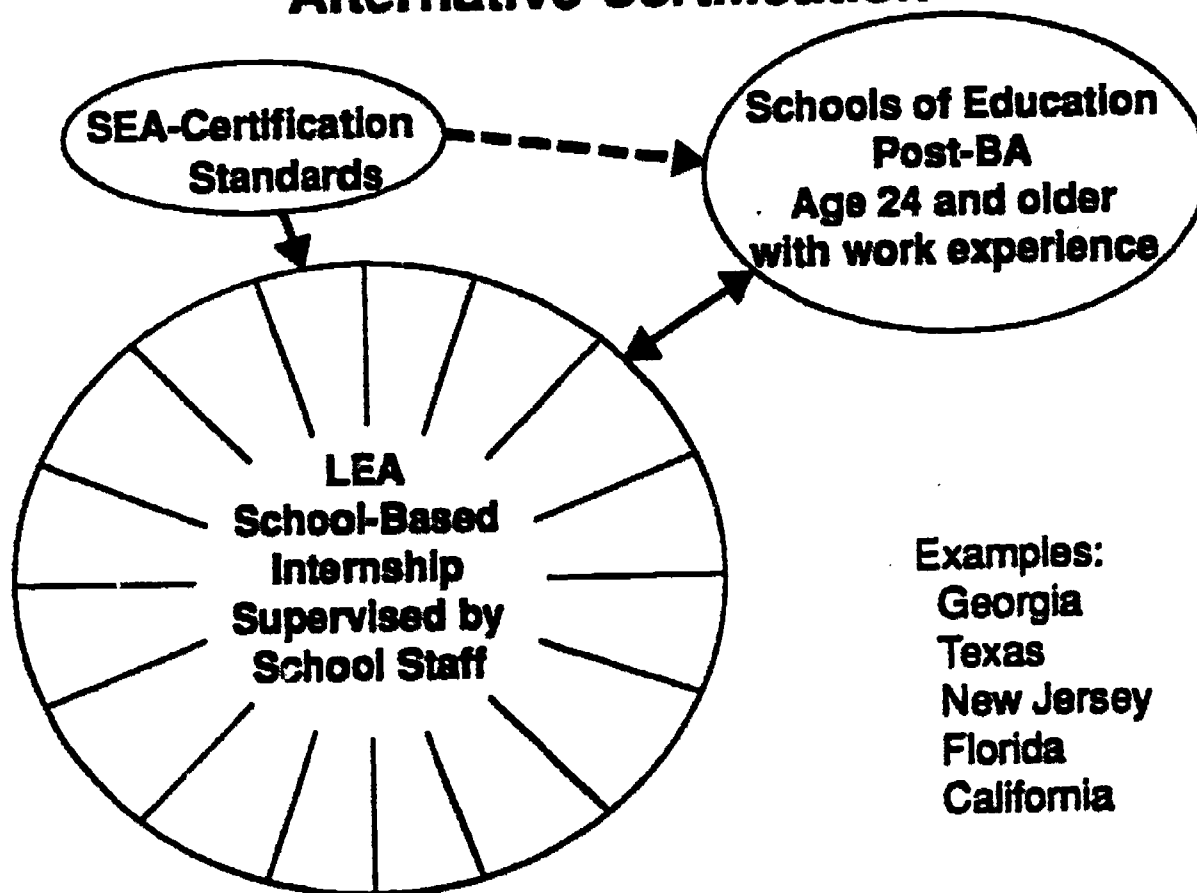
Baird (1989) recommended that alternative programs contain the following elements:

1. Open competition. Alternative programs should not be based only on personnel shortage. Rather, they permit alternative candidates to compete for positions.

## Traditional Certification



## Alternative Certification



**Figure 1.** Comparison of Traditional and Alternative Certifications  
 From: Baird, A. (1989). Alternative routes to certification: A strategy for increasing the quality and quantity of teachers (unpublished paper).  
 Used by permission of author.

2. Teacher entry requirements. Entry criteria must be met before candidate can be employed.
3. School district support. The alternative program should be a cooperative effort of local teachers, administrators, and higher education, with significant support from the district supervisory team.
4. Formal training. Course work in conjunction with internships should be coherent, intensive, and specifically designed for the target population of applicants.
5. Phase-out of emergency certification. Alternative certification would ease the shortage of human resources and eventually end the need to hire unqualified personnel (p.5).

Although the practice of alternative certification is more common in subject areas such as mathematics, foreign language, vocational education, science, and nursing, there are a few pilot programs in special education. The Houston Independent School District has recently implemented an alternative special education certification program in collaboration with the University, in which 24 individuals are currently placed in special education classrooms for children with severe behavioral/autistic problems through an alternative certification program (Stafford, 1990). Furthermore, Delaware included special education teachers and physical therapists in its targeted positions for alternative certification in 1988-1989. In spite of resistance, alternative certification has gained ground in the field and deserves consideration. Smith-Davis (1989) urged that special educators become more cognizant of and involved in the issue of alternative certification. In 1988, McKibbin alerted us:

What is new about recent forms of alternative certification is the potential role or, more correctly, the absence of a role for institutions of higher education... in the professional preparation portion (foundations, pedagogy, and practicum) of teacher education. In some states...the participation of universities is now optional. (p.82)

Because of widespread variations in teacher certification and training practice (Chapey, Pyszowski, & Trimarco, 1985), multiple philosophies (Smith-Davis, 1989), and a lack of identifiable "subject areas" in special education, the adoption of alternative certification programming in special education may be very difficult in some areas of special education personnel training. However, a concerted effort should be made to examine the feasibility of alternative certification programming for certain areas of personnel in special education and related services. For example, a school nurse or community health care

specialist may be permitted to apply for a position to provide educational services to children with complex medical needs through an alternative certification route. On the other hand, teachers of children with visual impairments may be most effectively educated by attending traditional teacher certification programs. Examples mentioned in this section may be treated as stimulants for further thought. New ideas and different ways of thinking would obviously provide better perspectives on this issue.

### Implications for Special Education

State special education certification is a complex issue as well as a dynamic and on-going process. The minimum requirements for special education personnel preparation programs in IHEs are largely dictated by state certification requirements. However, state certification is based on state board of education policies, rather than on instructional realities and the quality concerns to which most IHEs adhere. In some instances, this incompatibility creates a "mismatch" situation. McLaughlin, Valdivieso, Spence, and Fuller (1988) illustrate that teacher preparation in special education may not be responding to the needs of the job market. Thus, there appears to be a mismatch between the needs of consumers and the trainees produced which relates not only to trainees competencies and understanding, but also to the positions for which they are being prepared. Reflecting and/or leading changes in training philosophy, resources, and quality concerns in the field requires a highly collaborative effort among SEA, LEAs, and IHEs to develop state certification to meet the challenges and issues identified in this paper.

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# **Recruitment and Retention: Emerging Trends in Special Education and Implications for Training Personnel**

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## **Defining the Issue**

A significant shortage of teachers and other professionals trained to work with children and youth with disabilities currently exists (Bowen, 1988; Smith-Davis, Burke, & Noel, 1984). This well documented shortage is expected to become even more acute when the number of U. S. public school children age 5 through 13 rises to approximately 34.5 million in 1995. Retention of personnel able to serve the needs of exceptional students and their families is also increasingly becoming an issue (Grosenick & Huntze, 1981; Zabel, 1987), and overwhelming evidence attests to the fact that many qualified educators leave the profession prior to retirement (Zabel & Zabel, 1983). Finally, the supply of teacher educators is diminishing, and there is strong evidence that as the current generation of special education professors begins to retire in the next decade there will be insufficient numbers of quality professionals to take their place (Sindler & Taylor, 1987). These contentions are widely accepted and a variety of data from a number of sources are available to confirm them.

The purpose of this paper is not to discuss the existence of a special education personnel recruitment and retention problem. The problem, at least in general terms, has been clearly identified. Thus, in this paper we focus on several possible solutions to the problem, including obstacles to implementing the solutions. Strategies are offered for recruiting and retaining direct service personnel as well as leadership professionals.

## **Alternative Solutions**

A myriad of potential strategies can be proffered for recruiting and retaining quality professionals to work with children and youth with disabilities, only a few of which are identified in this paper. It is our position that there is not a single solution to this dilemma, but rather, recruiting and retaining quality special educators and support personnel must involve multifarious strategies.

Alternative solutions for recruiting and retaining direct service personnel.

Based on recent findings of the Institute for the Study of Exceptional Children and Youth at the University of Maryland, approximately 22,000 new special educators become available each year. However, the attrition rate among practitioners is some 25,000 per year, which means 3,000 special educators annually leave the profession. Obviously, the development and maintenance of high quality programs for exceptional children and youth will in major part be a function of the availability of well trained professionals. We offer the following options for increasing the supply of direct service personnel. Alternative solutions are not listed in priority fashion.

Augment salaries and benefits for educational personnel, including those who work with students with disabilities.

This often identified solution is not a panacea for personnel shortages. Nonetheless, it is naive to expect that recruitment and retention solutions will occur without appropriate attention to this factor (National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, 1985). While among the most obvious of the solutions, it may also be among the most difficult to implement. That is, as noted by Morsink, in her introduction to this monograph, education must compete with a number of other important needs for local, state, and federal resources, including road and highway improvement, mental health, and law enforcement. Nonetheless, as stated by Smith-Davis and her colleagues (1984), "We are not going to get educational excellence on the cheap" (p. 218).

Facilitate improved working conditions and status for personnel involved in direct service. In addition to issues associated with relatively low salaries, educators report that their chosen profession affords limited recognition (Carnegie Forum Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986). As a result, the perceived value and effectiveness of educators have eroded over the past decades, and many educators report that their societal worth is less than it should be (Sykes, 1983). Moreover, teachers report that the conditions under which they are expected to work makes remaining in the field a significant personal challenge. For instance, aggressive and assaultive students; overcrowded schools and classrooms; inadequate administrative support; nonprofessional assignments (e.g., lunchroom supervision); overwhelming paperwork; and out-of-date textbooks and equipment are but a few of the problems with which teachers must contend. Further, lack of power and perceptions that they are unable to control the destiny of their profession are common (Ysseldyke, Algozzine & Mitchell, 1982). Finally, the profession is perceived as offering few career ladder options.

That is, classroom or administrative assignments are often the only choices for educators, as opposed to a variety of career opportunities.

In addition to the above identified challenges, public school teachers of disabled students have reported feelings of isolation and exclusion. In this regard, special education personnel may perceive their personal worth to be less than their colleagues in regular education and to feel that they are not fully accepted. Moreover, special education personnel may lack resources and support systems to fully and effectively serve their students. That is, they may be required to contend with unacceptably large class size and case loads, and lack planning time, paraprofessional support, ancillary support services (e.g., speech pathology, occupational therapy), consultation opportunities, parent cooperation, mental health services, and appropriate in-service opportunities (Myles & Simpson, 1989).

Train educational personnel to be recruiters for the profession. It is well recognized that members of a profession are among the best recruiters for the profession. Thus, just as dentists, veterinarians, accountants, pharmacist, etc., are themselves uniquely able to describe the responsibilities and advantages associated with their profession, and can therefore serve as spokespersons and recruiters for their career choice, teachers can also be used to bring talented individuals into the field. Unfortunately, educators have recently received notoriety for advising others to choose a profession other than education. Nonetheless, it must be recognized that teachers and other educational professionals can be trained to recruit individuals into the field, including students of elementary, secondary and college age. Additionally, educators can be trained in the use of support measures that will extend the tenure of professional educators.

Educate personnel other than traditional educators to be teachers and service providers for students with disabilities. In addition to recruiting for special education individuals trained as general and special educators, the profession should consider identifying and training individuals with arts and sciences degrees and experiences. This approach is not new, and in fact a number of talented special educators have been developed from among individuals lacking traditional educational backgrounds. Thus, individuals with college degrees in other than education and degree-holding persons experienced in other than education who seek alternative careers should be given an opportunity to be educated to work with students with disabilities. There is no question that individuals lacking school-of-education training require appropriate course work, experiences, and training before being allowed to teach students with disabilities. However, with appropriate training these persons should be able to assist in meeting current and future special education personnel demands.

Provide training stipends in amounts sufficient to support full time participation in special education personnel preparation programs. While some colleges and universities are able to offer special education training stipends, the amounts are frequently of insufficient size to support full-time program participation. This is particularly true for post-baccalaureate students. As a consequence, those individuals with a particular interest in working with students with disabilities are often forced to accept non-special education positions while pursuing their special education certification and/or degree programs on a part-time basis. Therefore, the availability of personnel able to accept special education teaching and support service positions is significantly slowed and diminished. Thus, one mechanism for increasing the availability of special educators entering the profession is to increase the number and size of personnel preparation stipends. We also endorse use of contingencies for assuring that stipend recipients make a contribution to the special education field. For example, stipend recipients would either be required to work in the particular area of their profession (such as rural, inner city, transition, etc.) for a predetermined length of time or repay their stipend.

Develop strategies for increasing the pool of special educators from underrepresented groups and professionals to work in especially underserved areas, including rural and inner-city programs. Shortages of trained personnel for educating children and youth with disabilities are widespread. However, there is a paramount need for minority teachers and other professionals who are members of under represented groups. These individuals serve as role models for minority students and their families and are in a fortuitous position to bridge cultural, language and value differences between home and school. Similarly, significant shortages abound for personnel to work with disabled students in inner city and rural areas, and retention of high quality special educators in these settings is an acute problem.

Strategies for recruiting and retaining the aforementioned personnel must by necessity be comprehensive and multifaceted. That is, no single method can resolve the problem of recruiting and retaining special educators from under represented groups and individuals for rural and inner city settings. Thus, stipend and loan incentives, salary incentives, moving expense support, community support programs, community-based recruitment campaigns, professional advertising promotions and programs, guaranteed summer employment, preferential employment for spouses, programs to encourage high school students into teaching careers, and preservice training programs explicitly designed to provide specific types of experiences (e.g., rural field experiences) are but a few of the programs which should be encouraged.

Improve the quality of special education personnel preparation programs. Individuals interested in entering the



teaching profession must be exposed to high quality instruction which is both stimulating and effective. Such training stimulates and invigorates individuals in the profession and draws into special education programs personnel who are bright, talented, creative, and dedicated. Moreover, individuals who are effectively trained are more apt to understand the demands of the profession and to be effective in their jobs, thus increasing their tenure in the profession.

High quality instruction must specifically go beyond awareness and knowledge training and emphasize development of application skills. That is, it is no longer acceptable for special educators to simply be made aware of issues and techniques. Rather, they must be able to effectively execute appropriate skills.

Enhance and expand cooperative business, government, and education recruitment and retention programs. More and more the public and private sector are calling for cooperative planning and programming. The dependence of private business on quality education is becoming increasingly apparent, and as a result students' performance is more and more being correlated with international competitiveness. Accordingly, the public and private sector are recognizing the need for mutually beneficial action plans. In this regard, cooperative strategies for increasing the supply of personnel for educating students with disabilities must be designed and implemented. Just as citizens plan recruitment programs for identifying and bringing to their communities physicians and other professionals, programs can be developed for recruiting and retaining special educators. Specific recruitment and retention methods vary from community to community, but have involved such things as apprising perspective employees of community recreational and leisure resources and unique qualities of a region; providing a service-free bank checking account; providing complimentary apartment rent for one month; guaranteeing summer employment; allowing for restaurant and shopping discounts; and inviting newly hired educators to join community clubs and organizations. Such efforts assist newcomers to adjust to their settings and to form positive community contacts and attitudes. Without question these factors are often the foundation for teachers remaining in special education as well as in a particular setting.

Business and government leaders are increasingly recognizing that high quality educational programs are basic to the growth and development of their communities. For that reason, these decision makers appear motivated to help schools and agencies recruit high quality special educators. School personnel will most likely need to take the lead in orchestrating effective special education personnel recruitment and retention programs, but their effectiveness in this regard will be significantly enhanced by working with business and government personnel.

### Alternative solutions for recruiting and retaining leadership personnel

Through an analysis of position announcements listed in the Chronicle of Higher Education from 1975 through 1986, Sindelar and Taylor (1987) determined that the number of available special education positions increased while the number of doctoral graduates decreased. Sindelar and Taylor projected from their data that demand for doctoral level special education personnel will surpass supply unless enrollment in doctoral programs increases. Smith, Pierce, and Keyes (1988) reported similar findings, noting that there is now and will continue, at least in the foreseeable future, to be a shortage of doctoral level special education faculty. Smith and her colleagues also observed that demand for special education leadership personnel will be intensified by expansion of programs to serve infants and toddler age groups and by development and expansion of transition, technology and life-span services. Similar to the direct service personnel shortage problem, strategies for increasing the quantity and quality of special education leaders must be identified and implemented. Several options for increasing the supply of quality doctoral level special educators are identified below.

Salaries and benefits available to teacher educators and other special education leadership personnel must be competitive with those of other professions. As in the case of direct service providers, teacher educators and other doctoral level leadership personnel can be expected to assume positions wherein they will be able to prepare quality teachers and other professionals only if appropriately compensated. Moreover, high quality personnel will continue to pursue avenues other than teacher education doctoral degree programs unless salary and benefit packages are improved. Thus, unless college and university salaries and benefits are competitive with those of public schools, agencies, and private business, there will continue to be an erosion of quality personnel available for teacher preparation. According to Grassmuck (1990), "Officials of both public and private universities across the country are bracing for an unfavorable economic climate in the 1990's". Yet, it is unrealistic to expect that the number of special education leadership personnel will increase independent of salary and benefit gains.

Provide stipends, other forms of financial support, and program options which will allow career educators to pursue doctoral study. Just as special education training stipends for direct service personnel are insufficient to support program participation, so too are resources for leadership professionals. Individuals qualified to pursue doctoral degrees are more and more unable to afford advanced graduate study, thereby even further reducing the number of persons able to assume teacher education and other leadership positions. The fact that many individuals most appropriate for doctoral study are of an age and position (e.g., have dependent children, own homes) to need

substantial assistance underscores this need. Hence, appropriate financial support is considered a basic ingredient in solving the special education leadership personnel supply dilemma. In exchange for stipend support, individuals would be required to assume special education leadership positions for which they were trained.

It is also recommended that the Division of Personnel Preparation, Office of Special Education Programs, allow for stable stipend support. That is, rather than limiting Federal personnel preparation program funding to a maximum of 36-60 months, select programs would continue to make stipends available for longer periods of time after other personnel preparation funding ceases (e.g., monies to support travel, personnel). Decisions regarding which programs would be eligible for such funding would be competitive. In this regard, factors such as program quality and impact on the field -- the number and percentage of prior stipend recipients who have successfully assumed teacher education and other leadership positions would be salient factors.

It must be recognized that recruiting individuals into special education doctoral programs will require more than increasing the size and number of stipends. Measures such as allowing for part-time program participation, for at least a portion of students' doctoral programs, and allowances for conducting dissertation research in doctoral students' work settings should also be considered. These and other measures for supporting individuals interested in advanced special education study are available to some degree; however, it is our opinion that such options need to be greatly expanded.

Emphasize quality aspects of special education leadership training programs. Creative efforts to increase the quantity of leadership personnel should never be undertaken at the expense of quality. In other words, the answer to the special education leadership dilemma can not be interpreted to be an increase in less capable or less qualified personnel. Such a strategy would only create serious direct service, financial, and public confidence problems. Now, more than ever, quality standards must be identified and applied, particularly as program options such as part time study become more available. It is our belief that emphasizing quality factors will not only enable the profession to better retain personnel but will make recruitment efforts more effective as well.

Adherence to quality standards depends on one's interpretation of abilities, experiences, competencies, and skills needed for special education leadership. It is not the intent of this paper to specifically identify these factors. However, we suggest that individuals admitted to special education doctoral training programs have appropriate master's degrees or equivalent certificates; evidence of leadership-level cognitive and language skills; and successful, appropriate



professional experiences (e.g., special education direct service experience of at least 3 years). We also recommend that leadership personnel be trained for positions they will eventually accept. In the case of teacher educators, we recommend that students' programs involve appropriate training for personnel preparation, along with leadership-level research and service experiences and training. The profession can no longer accommodate doctoral level teacher educators whose primary interests, experiences, and training are in other than teacher education (e.g., research). It only makes good sense that individuals who assume tomorrow's leadership positions have training and experiences in those areas consistent with their future roles.

Enhance and expand cooperative relationships between schools of education and public/private school systems. Colleges and universities can be expected to experience continued competition for the role of preparing educational personnel, including special education leaders. Increasingly, public school systems and other educational/clinical entities are contending that their personnel and resources allow them to effectively undertake personnel preparation also. It is our belief that professional schools of education are uniquely qualified to prepare personnel, but only if they form effective and equal partnerships with the practicing profession (i.e., public and private school systems and other educational/clinical entities).

Practicing professionals are in an excellent position to be aware of skills and competencies needed for direct service and leadership success. They truly should have input into professional school of education curriculum and management decisions. Moreover, they have practical, internship, and clinical experience resources along with functioning models and adjunct faculty needed for effective training. Furthermore, they offer research sites and opportunities which are conducive to working on relevant and important problems and questions. Finally, school system personnel are able to recommend and help develop training programs for particular types of leadership personnel most needed to meet the changing demands of education. It is clearly evident that successful leadership personnel preparation programs must involve partnerships between professional schools of education (which have teacher education experiences, theoretical perspectives, research resources, etc.) and school districts. While in some instances this may need to be a "forced marriage", it is one that indubitably must occur.

Professional schools of education and public school districts would be well advised to form ongoing and meaningful relationships with the private sector. In truth, colleges and universities should effectively and cooperatively relate to school district personnel and, in turn, then both groups must cooperatively work with private business. As noted in comments relating to direct service personnel, cooperative strategies between education and the private sector are needed for special

education leadership planning, program development, and program modification. Moreover, the private sector represents an important, albeit largely untapped, personnel preparation support resource, one which will become more important as public resources become more sparse. Without argument, availability of private resources will be contingent upon cooperative and mutually beneficial relationships among higher education, school districts, and the private sector.

Improve personnel preparation leadership recruitment strategies and contingencies. Replacement of the aging professorate in the coming decade will make recruitment of special educators for leadership training an ever increasing priority. With that as a given, creative and multifaceted strategies ought to be proposed, implemented and evaluated. Moreover, it is our opinion that higher education, practicing school professionals, businesses, and business leaders orchestrate plans for bringing talented and appropriate individuals into leadership preparation programs. Heretofore, recruitment of individuals for special education doctoral programs has received casual and amateurish attention. We recommend that future recruitment strategies be based on state-of-the-art information and strategies. The private sector has significant talent in this regard, and higher education has demonstrated know-how in limited areas (e.g., athletics, music), albeit in an extremely competitive form. This same commitment to the identification of methodology for bringing in to special education doctoral programs those individuals with the talent, creativity and experiences to fill the imminent leadership void deserves to be undertaken. This should include, but must not be limited to, recruitment and retention of individuals from under-represented groups.

Currently, individuals submitting applications to the Division of Personnel Preparation, Office of Special Education Programs, under the Preparation of Leadership Personnel priority (CFDA 84.029D), are expected to provide a recruitment plan. In that plan they are asked to identify how they will go about the process of recruiting appropriate persons for their leadership training programs, including individuals from underrepresented groups. In so doing, the United States Department of Education demonstrates the importance of personnel preparation leadership programs having appropriate strategies for bringing into the profession individuals with needed prerequisite experiences, skills, and other credentials. It is our recommendation that this proposal component be maintained; however, we believe that more carefully developed and documented procedural recruitment plans will facilitate improved resource utilization. Consequently, we recommend that proposals submitted under the Preparation of Leadership Personnel priority include explicit and detailed recruitment plans and strategies. Moreover, subsequent proposals for resources to prepare leadership personnel should be required to include previous training information, including the number and percentage of



stipend recipients who graduate, the number and percentage of stipend recipients who accept positions in settings for which they were trained (e.g., how many individuals who receive doctoral degrees emphasizing teacher education sponsored by Federal resources accept positions in teacher education), and the number and percentage of stipend recipients from under represented groups. By so doing, programs would not only be judged on their original recruitment plans but their success in following these plans as well.

Improve and expand strategies for retaining leadership professionals through the use of skill improvement, skill development, and other options. College and university professors report that their perceived value to society has been weakened along with the conditions under which they must work (D'Arms, 1990). This appears to be particularly true for teacher educators (DeLoughry, 1990). So just as direct service personnel have experienced increasingly stressful and inhospitable conditions, so too have teacher educators. Accordingly, one basic and inescapable solution to the shortage of high quality teacher educators is to improve higher education conditions, including teaching assignments, advisement loads, resource availability, and shared decision making opportunities. By so doing, administrators, students, and citizens will be more able to hold accountable those individuals entrusted to prepare personnel to educate the children and youth of this country.

Retention of high quality teacher educators can be facilitated by expanding and improving retraining, professional growth, and post-doctoral options. This strategy makes effective use of current teacher educators to meet changing needs (e.g., vocational, transition, health-related disabilities) as well as invigorating, and thus maintaining in the field, experienced teacher educators. There is no question that one solution to the current teacher education dilemma is to increase the number of new people entering the profession. However, it should also be apparent that an equally important strategy is to make better use of existing teacher education resources.

#### Obstacles, Barriers and Inhibitors to Obtaining the Ideal and Strategies for Moving Toward the Ideal

Like it or not, educational recruitment and retention problems will be neither quickly nor easily solved. Shortages of qualified educational personnel, including those interested in working with students with disabilities, are expected to continue for at least the near foreseeable future. This situation, at least in part, is a function of the need for basic educational reform. That is, without basic structural and philosophical changes to our educational system, problems of recruitment and retention of quality personnel to work with students with special needs will continue.

Educators cannot wait for educational reform to solve their recruitment and retention problems. Thus, in addition to working for basic change, alternative solutions must be considered, including those suggested in this paper. These potential solutions will not be easy to implement. Rather, obstacles, barriers, and inhibitors are to be expected. Nonetheless, educators must work for adoption of programs which will increase the availability of quality educators, including those for children and youth with disabilities.

Resource availability and commitment. It is obvious that money and resources are not the only solution to the current recruitment and retention problem. Yet, it is undeniable that little positive change will occur without commitment of appropriate resources. President George Bush, at the 1989 education summit in Charlottesville, Virginia, observed "improving schools means bringing hope to those who need it most. Let no child in America be forsaken or forgotten". Such rhetoric, which has obvious significance for children and youth with disabilities, is an important first step. However, it must be accompanied by monies and other resources.

There is agreement in this country that education must be a priority. However, education must compete with a number of other worthy needs (e.g., improved roads, bridges, programs for homeless families, improved public health programs) for resources. Such competition, in combination with unrealistic public and governmental expectations that high quality education can occur without additional resources, are the primary obstacles with which educators must contend.

Educators are in an excellent position to lay claim to resources needed for change. In order to take advantage of this fortuitous position, however, they must be politically active and aggressive. In this regard, educators must (a) work to maintain education's paramount position; (b) collaborate with legislators and other decision-makers to engineer programs, including recruitment and retention proposals; and (c) assertively pursue resources needed to improve programs for all students, including those with special needs. Educators must also be accountable to the public at large and all decision makers by demonstrating that additional resources are effectively being used to increase the quantity and quality of educational personnel. Consequently, the professor may not only advocate for additional federal, state, and local monies, but should demonstrate that these additional resources lead to personnel improvement.

Lack of coordinated recruitment and retention plans. In order to effectively recruit and maintain high quality personnel, educators need an orchestrated plan and coordinated methods. Traditional recruitment and retention programs have the complexion of an amateur in design and organization. This unfortunate situation applies to recruitment and retention of

both majority and minority professionals. Obviously, this barrier to effective recruitment and retention must be removed.

Circumventing the problem of effective recruitment and retention will require us to seek direction from outside the profession. In particular, marketing specialists from business can provide technical assistance needed to develop plans to recruit and retain quality educators, including those for children and youth with special needs.

Pilot recruitment and retention programs and strategies have yielded positive results. For example, the National Center for Student Retention, Inc., in Iowa, provides assistance to college and universities in the following areas: (a) reducing drop-out rates, (b) retaining special student populations, (c) galvanizing faculty, staff, and administrators in service of campus-wide retention efforts, (d) improving student services, (e) improving recruitment programs, (f) improving institutional images, and (g) improving students learning environment and quality of life. Indeed it has been proven that recruitment and retention efforts are likely to bring about positive results.

Recruitment and retention of minority professionals must receive special consideration. As suggested above, this activity should only be directed by professionals familiar with proven recruitment and retention methods. Therefore, programs such as the ones advocated by Scott and Fox (1989) are not only useful but mandatory. Scott and Fox (1989) suggest early intervention and continuing education of local residents as recruitment activities and mentorship programs, positive role models, and financial information dissemination as retention vehicles. They also offer specific plans for facilitating greater sensitivity to needs of minority students.

Lack of shared responsibility for education. For too long, educators have attempted to "go it alone". That is, they have undertaken the difficult task of providing a quality education to every child without the benefit of community, business, and political support. This situation has not been totally self-imposed. Nonetheless, until only recently, educators have done relatively little to promote the advantages of sharing educational responsibility with business leaders, legislators, and the communities they serve.

As noted by Ernest Boyer (1990), president of The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, "Teachers simply cannot do the job alone. Colleges must forge partnership with schools. Business and industry leaders must promote better education" (p. 5). In this context, solutions to recruitment and retention problems will require creative involvement of a variety of individuals and institutions. Clearly, it is only through such a process that the goal of developing an adequate supply of quality educators for all students, including children and youth with disabilities, can be achieved.

Basic methods and strategies have been identified for establishing more effective liaison between education and other entities (e.g., business, government). Programs which create linkages among institutions of higher education, state education agencies, local education agencies, local, state and federal government, business leaders, and organizations such as the State Education Advisory Committee, The Council for Exceptional Children and its divisions, CSPD committees, and recruitment and retention networks, are daily proving their worth. It is incumbent upon educators now to work to further develop, extend, and multiply these relationships.

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\*This article was co-authored by the writer in her private capacity. No official support or endorsement by the Department of Education is intended or should be inferred.



## **Changing Populations**

# **Changes In the Urban School Population: Challenges In Meeting the Need for Special Education Leadership and Teacher Preparation Personnel**

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## **Defining the Issue**

Schools have changed significantly in the 36 years since Brown vs. Board of Education of Topeka (1954). Schools now enroll more Blacks, more linguistic and cultural minorities, and more students with handicapping conditions than ever before. A large proportion of these new groups of students come from low income families. Many of these children and youth enter school with powerful hopes and dreams sustained by their parents' fierce desire to see them succeed. Unfortunately, the education of too many of these students is characterized by low expectations, inferior resources, ill-prepared teachers, a lack of understanding of their life circumstances, and differential treatment. Nowhere is this so true as in the schools of our large urban centers.

One need go no farther than the nearest city newspaper to learn of the ills that beset city schools today. It is clear that the country is undergoing major demographic shifts as a result of immigration from Southeast Asia, Central and South America, the Soviet Union, and other parts of the world. The arrival of very substantial numbers of students from other cultures, who do not speak English and may have had relatively little schooling prior to their arrival in the United States, stresses the schools which they enter. For example, more than half of the entering kindergarten class in New York City in 1988 spoke a language other than English as their primary language (Lieberman & Callagy, 1990). Students arriving from third world nations, often victims of political oppression and survivors of war, may suffer the consequences of long term malnutrition, lack of schooling, inadequate medical care and psychological problems which derive from their early experiences. While most of these children will succeed (some brilliantly) in their general education classes, some will require special education services.

In the population of native students, there also are major demographic shifts occurring in cities. By the year 2000, over half of the students in our nation's big city public schools will be non-White (Watson, 1989). In New York City, for example, a major shift in the racial composition of the student body has occurred in the past decade. In 1977-78, of the 1.35 million

students enrolled, White students accounted for 39%; Black students, 32%; Hispanic students, 26%; and other minorities, 3%. In 1989-99, however, Whites numbered only 29%; Blacks, 34%, Hispanics, 30%; and other minorities, 7% (New York Times, 09/22/88). The Chicago Board of Education reports that Whites comprise only 12.9% of the students in that city's public schools, while Blacks comprise 60%; Hispanics, 24%; and other minorities, 3.1% (Chicago Tribune, 1988). These shifts in racial and ethnic composition of the schools should theoretically have no greater impact on special education than they do on general education. However, the educational and psychological literature is replete with empirical evidence indicating that bilingual and minority children are over represented in special education classes (Mercer, 1983; Tucker, 1980; Willig & Greenburg, 1986; Wright & Santa Cruz, 1983).

A more alarming change in student demographic composition has to do with socioeconomic status--the student body tends to come from low-income families. Nearly 70% of poor black youth and 62% of poor Hispanic youth live with someone receiving public assistance (Perales, 1988). In Chicago, for example, 68.1% of public school children come from low income families (Chicago Tribune, 1988). A number of risks which are important predictors of the need for special education are associated with poverty. First, poor mothers tend to be under educated. Second, they tend to be malnourished, putting their children at risk even before birth. The inadequate, and often substandard medical care available during pregnancy, and available to their children during their lifetimes, means that illness, diseases and disorders are more frequent and often go undetected and untreated, thus increasing the likelihood that disabilities will result. For example, while only 5% of White upper-class infants suffer complications at birth, compared to 15% of Whites with low socioeconomic status, 51% of non-white infants suffer some birth complication (Gelfand, Jenson, & Drew, 1988). Children who suffer birth complications are more likely to exhibit neurological problems that later contribute to academic difficulties (Magrab, Sostek, & Powell, 1984). A developmental screening program conducted in Chicago inner city community health clinics found 20% of the infants aged birth to 3 years to display development that appeared to be delayed (Brinker, Frazier, Lancelot & Norman, 1989). Even when delayed development is suspected in children of the urban poor, early intervention services may not be sought due to the more pressing issues of immediate survival (e.g., housing, food, safety) facing these families (Brinker et al., 1989; Laskey, Tyson, Rosenfeld et al., 1987; Palfrey, Singer, Walker et al., 1987). Furthermore, we know that there is a sharp increase in the number of young children who will carry the AIDS virus, or suffer the consequences of their mothers' drug abuse. Recent surveys suggest that one of every 200 infants born in the New York metropolitan area is infected with the AIDS virus (New York Times, 2/2/89). Finally, there is an alarming increase in child abuse and neglect nationally, and apparently especially in cities. Child abuse has been listed as the second leading cause

of traumatic brain damage in children younger than 6 years of age. Poverty increases the risk of family conflict and substance abuse, both of which increase the likelihood of child abuse and neglect. Substance abuse, for example, not only increases the risk for organic disorders in children, but also enhances the probability of inadequate parental interaction (Imber-Black, 1988). There is a growing realization that mothers who use Crack cocaine during pregnancy are likely to give birth to infants who will require intensive rehabilitation during preschool years, and may require special education during their school years.

A less obvious, but perhaps more devastating consequence of low-income, minority and bilingual status results from teacher attitudes towards these students. Numerous studies have highlighted the dramatic impact of teacher expectations on student performance (Rist, 1970; 1973; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968). According to these studies, teachers often adjust educational goals, teach different material, and reward or punish behavior differently by class as well as race. Curriculum content, type of instruction, frequency and form of teacher-pupil interaction, and resources, tend to favor children in higher rather than lower socioeconomic groups. For example, Raudenbush (1983) reports that teachers of low-income students tend to minimize discussion and interaction on cognitive issues and instead stress rote learning.

Ability grouping, too, appears to place additional risk upon minority, bilingual, and low-income students. "Minority students and those from the lowest socioeconomic groups have been found in disproportionate numbers in classes at the lowest track levels, and children from upper socioeconomic levels have been found to consistently be overrepresented in higher tracks" (Goodlad, 1984, p. 152). Such early differential treatment has a long-term effect on the student's schooling. Students placed in lower tracks will likely remain in the assigned track for the duration of their academic career as they will seldom be provided with the curriculum content necessary to allow them to rejoin their higher-track peers (Raudenbush, 1983). These students are almost three times more likely to be referred for special education and related services, and contribute substantially to the staggering drop-out rate reported for many urban schools.

The student mobility rate in urban schools also contributes to student academic difficulties. The proportion of students entering or leaving any given school in the city of Chicago may be as high as 54 percent (Chicago Tribune, 1988). Learning, teacher and peer relationships, and general academic progress are threatened whenever the continuity of schooling is interrupted (Barresi, 1982). High mobility rates have been associated with ethnic and cultural differences. Economic disadvantage also has been shown to increase the probability of disrupted schooling (Hunter, 1982).



The effect of these demographic shifts on the nation's corps of urban teachers has been devastating. Teacher absenteeism is epidemic in the Chicago schools, for example. On average, Chicago teachers take 11 sick days during the 39 weeks they work each year, about twice as many as the average of teachers across the country (5.7 days). At least 1,070 teachers--4% of the staff--call in sick, and an average of 190 classes go unstaffed, according to Chicago School Board records. The absentee rate is higher on Mondays and Fridays, when an average of 1,117 teachers don't show up, and an average of 259 classes go unstaffed (Chicago Tribune, 1988). Vacancies in teaching positions in urban schools are three times greater than in suburban or rural schools (Boyer, 1988). Furthermore, urban schools are unable to attract and retain young, new teachers. Less than 4% of the students in more than 900 teacher education programs preferred or planned to teach in city schools (Boyer, 1988). Markedly poor school facilities, relatively low salaries in areas that have a high cost of living, the difficulties presented by the student body including the emotional reaction that any compassionate person has when confronted with poor, hungry, neglected, and too often homeless children--all make urban teaching less than a desirable option.

Failure to attract and retain teachers in our urban schools is especially problematic in relation to minority personnel. Only 8% of the teachers in the United States are Black (Watson, 1989). Within the next few years, this number is projected to decline to less than 5% (Cooper, 1988). Minority teachers report that they are more likely to leave the teaching profession (40%) than non-minority teachers (26%), even though they do not differ in their reported level of job satisfaction (Harris, 1988). This survey goes on to report that less experienced minority teachers are the most likely to say they will leave. Fifty-five percent of minority teachers with less than five years of teaching experience say they are likely to leave the profession.

A drastic shortage of minority leadership personnel also is evident. For example, there are 15,438 school districts in the United States. Of these, 350 enroll over 75% of all Black children. Yet only 112 Black superintendents preside over school districts (Cooper, 1988). While specific statistics related to the number of minority and bilingual persons currently enrolled in special education leadership programs is not readily available, statistics for similar programs have been collected. A national survey of school psychology programs reported that only 11.5% of students attending either masters or doctoral programs were from minority groups (Zins & Halsell, 1986). This study goes on to report that only 1.3% of these students were Hispanic. Minority and bilingual teacher educators are also in short supply. Thus, we must develop effective programs to recruit and retain minority teachers and administrators if we hope to provide the multicultural models in the schools necessary to promote cultural and ethnic diversity and equality. One key to this is the preparation of leadership personnel who are



themselves members of minority groups, and who are committed to the problems of urban special education.

Traditional teacher education programs may not be addressing their task in a way which prepares personnel for the harsh realities of the urban setting. Urban schools may not necessarily require of their teachers a different or unique set of skills or competencies from that of their colleagues in suburban or rural school; however, they certainly demand that teachers be cognizant of the particular contextual variables that pertain to the urban setting (Montero-Sieburth, 1989). Additionally teacher practitioners must become more cognizant of the cultural nuances that influence the educational process.

What is currently needed is a group of educational leaders who will focus research attention on the problems of urban schools, and develop appropriate programs to prepare teachers for the nation's city school districts. These leaders must intensify the examination of instructional strategies that meet the challenge of urban schools and schools (e.g., identifying effective instructional grouping schema for diverse categories of students, effective practices of engaging poor and minority families). Only then can we hope to adequately prepare teachers for the instructional and student behavioral issues found in the urban school context.

The nature of the problems experienced by many urban youth frequently transcend disciplinary and professional boundaries in colleges and universities, job titles, and perceived responsibilities in the community. The implementation of quality services for children and adolescents in our urban schools, therefore, requires a coordination across social policy, medical, educational, juvenile justice, and human service disciplines, each with different epistemological bases, different organizational structures, and different economic foundations. The next generation of leaders in urban education, including special education, must have this multidisciplinary perspective

### Alternative Solutions

Any attempt to impact the quality of services provided to exceptional learners in the urban school will, of course, involve the special education system itself, but also must consider shortcomings in the regular education system. Likewise, meaningful changes in our urban schools will require a community-wide systems approach.

Dynamic partnerships between universities, public schools, local businesses, parent groups, and social service agencies in urban communities must be developed to address the needs of the "total" school-aged child. The local public schools must become an integral part of the community. The narrow focus of the schools' role in the community must be challenged. The urban community must begin to respond to the needs of an increasing

number of children and families with serious personal and social problems. The public school represents perhaps the most logical focal point for meeting the needs of children and youth for educational, vocational, and support services. The public school might serve as the site for infant and early childhood intervention programs where not only infant stimulation and preschool, but also nutritional, health, and social services can be provided (Brinker et al., 1989). Before-and-after-school programs for elementary-aged children and appropriate after-school activities for adolescents should be seen as critical components of the schools' role instead of "extras" that easily can be cut from school budgets. Schools could house liaison personnel from various social agencies existing in the community (National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1985). Additionally, the schools, in partnership with public and private agencies, and local businesses, could provide meaningful transition and drop-out prevention programs that incorporate significant employment opportunities. The school can not, however, be expected to carry these responsibilities in isolation from, or without its share of the resources of, the community it serves.

Schools must vigorously pursue means to recruit, retain, and promote multi-cultural personnel. Schools will be hard pressed to communicate a sense of cultural pride and equality when the vast majority of their students come from poor, ethnic and language minority families while the teachers are predominantly White middle-class people (Wilson, 1989). Colleges and universities must strengthen programs to recruit minority students, and teacher education programs must prepare candidates to work successfully with diverse populations (Burstain & Cabello, 1988).

The urban school must intensify efforts to provide equal access to quality education at all levels. Policies and procedures which insure racial and cultural fairness in classrooms and schools such as fair grading and evaluations, fair discipline and suspension, and fair involvement in student activities must be intensified (Cole, 1983). Teachers, trained in multi-cultural education/interaction, should hold high expectations (not simply high standards) for both academic achievement and behavior (Rist, 1970). Traditional homogeneous grouping or tracking should be eliminated. Additionally, programs that serve economically disadvantaged (e.g., Chapter 1) and handicapped students must be restored and expanded (Children's Defense Fund, 1984).

Bilingual education services also must be made readily available to the ever increasing number of language minority students. Assessment practices should ensure that bilingual students are not improperly denied, nor provided, special education services. An adequate supply of bilingual teachers, special education teachers, and related services personnel must be provided for the urban schools (Cegelka, Lewis, & Rodriguez,

1987). Staff training of existing teachers to ensure proper implementation of bilingual programs must be accomplished. The curriculum must not only include basic skills, that should be taught and mastered early, but also develop higher level abilities, such as logical, analytical, and critical thinking, problem solving and test-taking skills (Public Education Information Network, 1985). Instructional materials and texts should provide ample coverage of the accomplishments of the various cultural groups represented in the school.

Schools' student enrollment should be of manageable sizes, thus large schools should be divided into small, independently functioning units to permit personalization of students' educational experience (Raywind, Tesconi, & Warren, 1984). Instructional programs should utilize effective teaching practices that emphasize cooperative and interactive learning strategies. Schools should be encouraged to develop regular education options designed to meet the needs of children with diverse learning styles, thus reducing the number of students misplaced in special education. Students must become more active in their educational programs, exerting self-determination and active control in the process. Thus, social skills, empathy for others, and self-control may become integral aspects of all instruction. Evaluation of student ability must include more than standardized tests. Schools should broaden their assessment and evaluation practices by developing systems for teacher observation and record-keeping which relate directly to instruction. Finally, schools must develop procedures to monitor and evaluate their curriculum, pedagogy, and control practices. More time for observing and discussing curriculum and pedagogy with other teachers, supervisors, and experts in the field could be provided. Peer-monitoring would increase the collective responsibility for addressing the practical issues of those teachers and administrators who are incompetent or otherwise unsuited for their responsibilities. School-and/or academic area-wide continuing education programs might be provided to allow teachers to keep current with their field while maximizing the overall impact of the training.

The ideal urban school is one that realistically addresses the individual needs of the students. The quality of the educational experience develops out of the interaction of the students, the teacher, and the curriculum. While there are many excellent urban schools exist (Goodlad, 1983), far too many are characterized by neglected students, ill-prepared teachers, and poorly developed curriculum. School personnel, students, parents, social policy makers, and interested community persons must work together to make each school an integral part of the community it serves and capable of preparing students for active participation in a democratic society. Ideal urban schools would serve all students effectively. At this time, because many urban schools fall far short of this ideal, we must continue to be concerned that some, and perhaps many, children are enrolled in



special education not because they are handicapped, but because our educational institutions have failed them.

### Obstacles, Barriers, and Inhibitors to Obtaining the Ideal

Revitalizing the urban public school is a Herculean task. Perhaps the greatest barrier is convincing those concerned that these large school and political bureaucracies can be transformed. Numerous highly publicized commission reports on education have proposed more centralized, bureaucratic control of the schools, student testing, curriculum, and teacher preparation and certification (National Commission on Excellence, 1983). This top-down perspective, with mandates and standards imposed from central governing bodies, too often fails to consider the interrelationships between the problems of the schools and the problems of society.

Other proposed reform measures have centered on school-based management and shared decision making (Guthrie, 1986; Mertens & Yarger, 1988). This bottom-up perspective offers the alluring possibility of reforming schools from within by involving teachers, administrators, parents, and others in the community in the design and management of local schools. Reforms growing out of the National Commission on Excellence (1983) report are primarily reflected in such initiatives as state-wide curriculum revisions, increased graduation requirements, and calls for improving the quality of the teaching force through stricter certification requirements. In many of our cities, the notion of school-based management and shared decision making has fallen on fertile ground. Experiments are underway in Miami, Rochester, and Chicago, while major initiatives are planned in New York and Los Angeles. However, none of the models in these cities involves special education in any systematic way; rather, it is hoped that as schooling improves, fewer children will be referred for special education services. While this may be the case, it is sad that general and special educators have not seized this opportunity to plan jointly for the full integration of special education into the ongoing program of the schools.

Pragmatic solutions to the issues confronting the urban schools most likely will depend upon coalitions of parents, school personnel, educational experts, and community businessmen, working in concert with local school and political officials (Public Education Information Network, 1985). There is no single set of solutions that will serve equity and excellence in all schools and communities. Local problems, laws, practices, and customs vary greatly from one community to another. If we hope to capitalize upon the grassroot potential for change we must examine existing legislative and fiscal barriers to local initiatives.

Some argue that mandates and close monitoring are necessary because most teachers are unqualified to make curriculum and

pedagogical decisions. Over time, however, increased mandates, more top-down controls, and centralized teachers and student testing requires less individual judgment and initiative by teachers. The net effect is to erode morale and depress quality teaching further. The most competent, thoughtful teachers, the very ones whom we must retain to exercise leadership in the schools, are driven from the profession (Public Education Information Network, 1985). Educational excellence and true equity cannot be mandated. Teachers and school personnel will not be coerced into developing the type of environment that promotes student academic and emotional growth (House, 1974; Sarason, 1982). The ideal urban school environment, instead, will emerge as a function of the particular goals and norms chosen, the understandings and expectations created and shared by a group of people (e.g., school personnel, neighborhood and community groups). The personal commitments of participants to these shared norms that define the moral order or climate of the school is paramount. The energy necessary for the needed urban school reform "is primarily located in and very close to schools" (Goodlad, 1983, p. 554).

Teachers because of their continuous contact with students are the critical participants in the definition of moral order and school climate. Without a competent, inspiring, dedicated teaching staff our reform efforts are incomplete. Yet, we face a national crisis in the identification and preparation of competent, qualified teachers willing to teach in the urban school. Minority, bilingual, and special education teachers are in particularly short supply.

As a result of the lack of trained teachers, urban school districts have resorted to the practice of employing ill-prepared or unqualified personnel under emergency certification provisions. In 1987, Chicago Public Schools employed over 4,000 teachers (almost 14% of the teaching staff) that were not properly certified for the positions they held (Chicago Tribune, 1988). A more shocking statistic relates to the average number of classrooms that have no teachers. Failure to identify an adequate supply of substitute teachers in Chicago schools during the 1987-88 school year left an average of 193.2 classrooms each day without a teacher (Chicago Tribune, 1988).

Teachers that graduate from traditional pre-service preparation programs seldom are provided the realistic skills (e.g., classroom management) needed to be successful in the urban classroom or to stem the wave of low-income, minority and bilingual children that inappropriately become labeled as handicapped (Fox, Kuhlman, & Sales, 1988). Most teacher education programs provide rather stagnant "foundation" and "methods" courses in a fragmented fashion that tends to inhibit students from integrating the theory from various courses with practice. State mandates and university "turf wars" contribute to this fragmentation and the failure to revitalize teacher education efforts.



Recent recommendations to reform teacher training and certification efforts have stressed increasing entrance and exit requirements (e.g., grade point average, standardized test scores, competency testing) and the period of study required to achieve certification to teach (e.g., the Holmes Group's (1986) emphasis on fifth-year training). Such efforts attempt to provide some measure of accountability, and to ensure that content-area teachers have adequate background in the subjects they will teach. Little attention has been paid, however, to the impact of such measures on the issue of recruitment of minority students to the teaching profession (Bass de Martinez, 1988; Bell & Morsink, 1986) or to the issue of what constitutes appropriate undergraduate study for those who will teach students with exceptional needs. With regard to the first issue, it can be postulated that individuals who are members of minority groups, including those who are bilingual, would be further impeded in their efforts to enter the teaching profession (Marcoulides & Heck, 1988). With regard to the second issue, it is not clear that there is any single discipline, or combination of disciplines, which, if studied as an undergraduate would lead to increased proficiency in teaching students who are handicapped, or those with exceptional needs. Too little research has been conducted on the characteristics of teachers who are successful with students in cities to be able to predict at this time whether it is academic ability, affective/social ability,, or membership in a minority group which contributes singly or in combination to the capacity to be effective in teaching handicapped students in urban schools.

Efforts at staff development (i.e., inservice, rather than preservice education) do not appear necessarily to achieve their desired outcomes to prepare teachers who are underqualified for their current placements. They "tend...to pull teachers out of the school setting and to offer little substance and depth that might be likely to change existing behavior in significant ways" (Goodlad, 1983, p. 557). Teachers seldom come together to discuss curriculum or instructional techniques. Tye (1981) reports, "teachers tend to be isolated in their own classrooms, in control of what goes on there and satisfied with the situation as it is. They feel impotent to effect school wide decisions, they do not wish to call upon resource people, they individually select their own inservice or post-credential college coursework..." (p. 52). More disheartening is evidence that teachers rarely may utilize instructional skills learned during staff training programs. Lloyd (1973) reports that teachers provided intensive training on instructional techniques seldom displayed these new skills in their classrooms, although they were able to demonstrate the skills when asked to do so. Goodlad (1983, 1984), in his examination of over 1,000 classrooms found very little substantial difference in how teachers taught and what students were expected to learn. Schools appear to be rather impervious to change imposed from the outside, supporting the notion that the best hope for change may reside within the school itself. Teachers and principals hold the key. Support for

this notion may be found in research on peer coaching and peer supervision (Ludlow, Faieta, & Wianke, 1989). It is important to note that these notions underlie the quickly-evolving trend towards school based management and shared decision making (Guthrie, 1986; Mertens & Yarger, 1988). With regard to special education, there is substantial evidence that in schools where there are effective procedures for shared decision making, coupled with a program of pre-referral interventions, the number of "judgmentally handicapped" students decreases (Chalfant, Pysh, & Moultrie, 1979). However, in schools where teachers take individual and collective responsibility for their own performance, they must be provided administrative support. Unfortunately, administrators seldom are taught skills to promote the personal development, self determination, and cooperative management of the teachers in their schools (Crisci & Tutela, 1990).

While forces within the school hold the greatest promise for needed reform, external constraints also impinge upon the urban school. For example, schools today are confronted with an ever expanding social mandate. The charge to the school, however, is not at all clear. Federal, state and local directives frequently are merged with other edicts and may require massive documentation (Goodlad, 1983). Social skill development, sex education, values clarification, citizenship preparation, related services, and vocational assessment and training, are but a few of the expectations frequently placed upon schools in addition to more traditional academic training. Frequently these expectations are to be fulfilled in spite of a lack of fiscal and personnel resources. Even when these resources are available, few school administrators demonstrate the leadership skills needed to coordinate service delivery (Goodlad, 1983). These school personnel, for example, seldom have access to the needed database to determine resource allocation to meet these mandates.

Another factor that inhibits the ability to provide quality education to students in urban schools and to reduce the over-identification of these students for special education services is the inequitable distribution of revenues and resources to urban schools. For instance, New York City Public Schools enroll 39% of all children in New York State, yet the allocation of state funds to the New York City Public Schools amounts to about 30% of the state's education budget. State aid to suburban and rural districts is disproportionately higher than it is to New York City. Despite the obvious need, our society spends far less money educating inner-city children than children in suburban areas. Declining tax bases in our cities and increased competition for available dollars by other municipal needs (e.g., fire protection, welfare, shelter for the homeless, drug treatment and prevention programs, health care costs for those with AIDS and others with catastrophic illness) results in proportionally lower allocations for education. In suburban communities, where these demands are much less pressing,

allocations for education represent twice the proportion of their total budgets to education as do the cities (Cole, 1983).

The problems and the potential solutions of ensuring a quality education for all of our urban children cut across numerous social systems. The contribution of each of these systems must be considered and barriers to their working together effectively must be illuminated. Ultimately, however, the agenda for school reform must be grounded in respect for the nature of the day to day work of teachers in classrooms; it must address what interferes with their ability to successfully teach students (Public Education Information Network, 1985).

### Strategies for Moving Towards the Ideal

A large body of literature on the problems that beset urban schools exists although this is not true for special education in particular. Many researchers and policy makers have outlined the need for increased autonomy from centralized governing bodies (House, 1974; Sarason, 1982). That is not to say that these larger systems do not have a role in reforming urban schools, rather that this role is that of enabling the individual schools and communities to implement needed change. Any attempt to outline strategies for change that encompass all of the social systems involved is well beyond the scope of this paper. We will, however, attempt to concentrate on those social systems that most directly effect the preparation of special education classroom teachers, educational leadership, and related services personnel.

The information presented thus far supports the assertion that our urban schools are undergoing significant changes that place students at an increased risk of educational failure. Many students will be referred, and ultimately found eligible for special education services despite the fact that their achievement deficits are not clearly the result of a handicapping condition. Others will be handicapped as a result of factors which often are related to poverty: maternal malnutrition and drug abuse, sexually transmitted diseases, lack of adequate prenatal care, and abuse or lack of adequate nurturance. To counteract the chance that children will be incorrectly identified as eligible for special education we must face squarely such issues as teacher expectancy, ethnic and cultural bias, and ineffective teaching must be faced squarely. To mitigate the incidence of children who are handicapped as a result of drug abuse, malnutrition, and other factors associated with poverty, we must advocate for expanded social welfare programs, better educational programs for parents and children alike, and the careful coordination of special education and other services for handicapped children from infancy through adulthood.

If we are to develop powerful teacher education programs we must first gain (and incorporate into both teacher and leadership



preparation) a fuller understanding of the urban school and the various social/ecological systems with which it interacts. Training programs must cultivate, within educators at all levels, a greater understanding of the cultures and traditions of the people the schools serve. Urban school personnel have become increasingly alienated from the communities and neighborhoods in which they work. Few urban school teachers live within their schools' communities; therefore they lack a clear understanding of the characteristics and problems of the children they serve. Coursework in urban sociology, cultural anthropology, and other related fields might prove useful as a part of teacher preparation, especially if discussions of the educational implications of urban, multicultural, and bilingual issues are included.

First-hand experience in the schools and other social institutions of the urban community provides another powerful source of insight. For many whose own backgrounds are limited to comfortable suburban or middle-class urban living, the depressed urban community is essentially unknown. Systematic observation and direct participation in the schools of the area during preservice programs provide an opportunity (however limited) to learn something of the children, their learning styles, and the schools that serve them. Organized volunteer work in hospitals, community agencies and after-school programs offers another dimension. For example, in many urban hospitals, there are nurseries for "boarder babies", whose mothers have given birth in the hospital, but have not taken the baby home upon their discharge. These babies board at the hospital, awaiting foster care placement, or a decision of the parents to release them for adoption. Volunteering to spend a number of hours each week with these babies, who may reside in the nursery for many months, quickly introduces students and teachers to the problems and issues of dealing with children in the city, while also providing much needed stimulation to the babies. Countless other examples might be cited: the point is that teacher education programs must strive to incorporate such experiences into the curriculum in order to sensitize prospective teachers to the realities of inner-city communities.

Walking tours of the community and conversations with businessmen, social workers, clergymen, politicians, and law enforcement officials could provide additional information related to the complex social environment of the urban setting. Contacts with parents in organized groups, in conferences at school, and in home visits are extremely helpful. Also of value are extended interviews with school guidance workers and other school personnel.

These experiences should be introduced at an early stage in prospective teachers' programs, since they can be helpful to the student in clarifying career goals, and helpful to faculty advisors in identifying those who should be encouraged (or discouraged) from entering the profession. Furthermore, a

realistic understanding of the conditions which influence the teachers' task may spell the difference between the starry-eyed idealist who goes forth to uplift the masses but retires in bitter defeat after the first month of school and the informed professional who has the ability to empower the students with whom she/he interacts.

Related services personnel, too, should become involved in programs that familiarize them with the cultural variation they will likely encounter in the public schools. Psychologist, social workers, speech pathologists, occupational therapists and other seldom possess the cultural awareness needed to provide unbiased assessments (Miller-Jones, 1989). Training programs might benefit greatly if they pooled their resources to develop powerful multi-disciplinary courses to examine cultural issues and their impact upon the student as she/he attempts to interface with the school and its many domains.

In addition to providing opportunities to increase the cultural awareness of special and regular educators, we must intensify our efforts to attract multicultural personnel into the profession. Bass de Martinez (1988), Zapata, (1988) and Middleton, Mason, Stillwell and Parkers (1988) offer valuable insights and suggestions in this regard. Efforts to encourage minority and bilingual students to consider teaching as a career should begin early. Expanding recruitment programs to high schools or even junior high schools has been suggested (Harris, 1988). In some cities, (for instance Houston, New York and Columbus), the public schools have opened alternative magnet high schools for those interested in considering teaching as a career option. New York City's High School for Teaching provides a full academic curriculum, but also provides weekly opportunities for students to serve as teaching assistants, tutors for younger children, and to observe widely in a variety of preschool and school programs. Those of us concerned with recruiting the best students for careers in special education must become involved in such programs. Finally, providing substantial financial incentives for minority students who want to become teachers would undoubtedly prove helpful (Arbeiter, 1987; Bass de Martinez, 1988). Traditional assistantships and fellowship stipends seldom provide the funds necessary to complete advanced training. Persons from lower-economic groups often lack the financial reserves necessary to complete leadership training.

Tye (1987) suggests that many teachers in urban schools are trapped in the "deep structure of schooling": the uniformity of classrooms; the overall control orientation of policy, program, and pedagogy; the general similarity of curriculum and of schedule; the reliance on test scores as measures of success; and the practice of tracking. Confronted with the overwhelming demands of the urban school, these teachers rely upon knowledge and strategies that tend to be irrelevant to the students and that tend not to correspond to the context in which the teaching and learning are taking place (Montero-Sieburth, 1989). Teacher



training programs should critically examine their curriculum and course requirements. The fragmented "foundations" and "methods" approach to teacher training fails to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Often courses that provide the knowledge and skills needed to address the realities of the urban classroom (e.g., bilingual/bicultural education, classroom management, consultation and counseling) are not available or are simply not suggested by student advisors due to the heavy course requirements of most certification programs.

Teachers and administrators must begin to develop an understanding of human social interaction. Together they must begin to develop a more supportive infrastructure within which school reform becomes feasible. Both groups would benefit from coursework and practical experience in counseling and consultation. Increased time for observing and discussing curriculum, pedagogy and personal interaction in ways that emphasize skilled feedback would allow for improved personnel management systems (e.g., peer supervision, peer-consultation, democratic leadership). Interpersonal skill building and knowledge of various social system functioning might better prepare teachers and administrators in their interactions with the families of their students. An understanding of the student as a member of the family system might better prepare educators to design instructional programs that take advantage of the student's interpersonal and cognitive strengths. The frequent mismatch between the student and the method of instruction might be minimized if we could capitalize on the student's role in the family. For example, even very young children from single parent families may play highly responsible roles in their family, exerting considerable control over their own and others' activities. In school these same children may have little opportunity to exert any control over the nature of the classroom task. In frustration such students may resort to inappropriate behavior as this allow some level of self-determination and control of others.

Model programs in urban education at the preservice, and leadership, levels are sorely needed. These programs should attempt to incorporate a multidisciplinary perspective to the issues confronting the urban school. Both regular and special education personnel must be included as prevention and service to exceptional children increasingly involves all educators. Coursework and supervised practicum placements would focus upon the issues of the urban school as discussed above. Additionally, continuing education programs should be developed to address similar needs in the body of existing school personnel. Innovative methods of delivery must be developed that increases the probability of behavior change on the part of participants. For example, courses could be offered at schools for interested teachers. Peer-monitoring of the skills being taught could become an integral part of the course structure. Thus, a critical mass of personnel would be available to support change in the school.

Attempts to better serve the exceptional students of the urban schools requires a broad examination of the real-world issues that impact the student, the teacher, the classroom, the school, and the community. The next generation of teachers and educational leaders must be prepared to address the "whole" child. This requires more than a knowledge of curriculum and pedagogy. These persons must be aware of themselves, and the communities in which they work. Only then can we hope to provide a truly meaningful educational experience for all children.

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# **Preparing Special Education and Related Services Personnel To Serve Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Children with Handicaps: Needs and Future Directions**

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The preparation of special education and related services personnel to serve culturally and linguistically diverse children with disabilities is a major challenge confronting the profession as the United States increasingly becomes more ethnically diverse. As the cadre of Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native educators has declined there has been growing attention to diversifying the education profession at practicing, administrative, and personnel preparation levels.

## **Defining the Issues and Identifying Alternative Solutions**

Relative to the preparation of personnel to work with culturally diverse infants, toddlers, children and youth with disabilities the following needs have emerged.

- \* Expand the pool of educators at direct service and leadership levels who are members of ethnic minority groups.
- \* Develop effective recruitment and retention programs and strategies related to individuals who are members of ethnic minority groups.
- \* Insure that competencies related to culturally and linguistically diverse children with handicaps are an integral component of special education and related services preparation programs.
- \* Strengthen training and leadership programs preparing ethnic minority special education and related services personnel as well as personnel serving culturally and linguistically diverse children with handicaps.
- \* Initiate research and demonstrations to improve curriculum, competencies, and training in terms of culturally and linguistically diverse children with disabilities.

**Ethnic Minority Personnel** Concern for cultural, racial, and ethnic diversity throughout education is important in terms of equity and access to attractive role models (Pine & Hilliard, 1990). A diverse public school, college or university, or state or federal department of education has significance for all

students and educators and the importance of such role models will grow as the population in the United States continues to change.

In contrast to steadily increasing culturally and linguistically diverse public school enrollment, the number of minority teachers is declining. In 1987 the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, using U. S. Department of Education statistics, reported that:

- \* Black students represented 16.2% of the children in public schools, however, only 6.9% of the teachers were Black.
- \* Hispanic students comprised 9.1% of the public school population, but Hispanics accounted for only 1.9% of the teachers.
- \* Asian/Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native children represented 2.5% and 0.9% of the children in public school, while the proportion of teachers who were Asian/Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native was 0.9% and 0.6% respectively.

With respect to the future the Quality Education for Minorities Project (1990) projects:

Over the next decade, when the minority student population in schools will exceed the present 30 percent and will approach 50 percent in most urban areas, minority teachers are expected to decline from the current 10 percent of the overall teacher work force to just 1 percent. Fewer than 8 percent of the students in teacher preparation programs are minority, and this pool is likely to be cut in half by the candidates' subsequent failure to pass teacher competency tests for licensing in most states. (p. 40)

Special education and related service programs face the same challenge as other segments of education in terms of greater cultural, ethnic, and racial diversity. For example, between 1972 and 1986 the proportion of minority members of the American Speech Language and Hearing Association increased from 1% to nearly 4%, well below the proportion of minorities in the general population (Cola, 1987). A survey of faculties at institutions belonging to the Higher Education Consortium for Special Education reported that 7% of the full professors, 11% of the associate professors and 3% of assistant professors were minority (Smith & Lovett, 1987). The trend toward few minorities at the entry level in higher education is alarming in view of the need for increased diversity of special education faculties.

Increasing the number of special education and related services personnel who are members of ethnic, cultural, and

racial minority groups is a long term imperative. This challenge requires a long term commitment on the part of the professionals, as well as policy makers and administrators at local, state, and federal levels. In the past this area has been of temporal, minimal interest; however, experience indicates that progress will require continual attention, and a willingness to make improvements dependent upon the effectiveness of programs, projects, and other activities.

Strategies to improve ethnic, cultural, and racial representation within special education and related service areas needs to encompass all areas of disability as well as ethnic minority groups. Addressing this area will require simultaneous attention to each of the various types of handicapping conditions, professional positions, (e.g., teacher, administrator, diagnostician), and ethnic minority groups, (i.e., Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native). As with low incidence populations in special education the smaller ethnic minority groups are many times overlooked because of their small number and geographic distribution. Likewise, areas of special education such as early intervention and early childhood also need to be included.

Programmatic efforts to improve minority representation within special education and related service areas needs to be accompanied by ongoing data collection and reporting. Presently, data that is available in this area is generally not differentiated according to area or level of special education, position, or by ethnic minority group. Such information would provide a means for determining progress as well as basis for future planning.

Recruitment and Retention. Renewed attention to attracting cultural, racial, and ethnic individuals into education and related fields has led to increased recruitment and retention attention. Proposals to improve recruitment and retention of minorities have included national and state scholarships, high school and college work-study programs, articulation programs between two-year and four-year institutions, various forms of financial assistance, incentives to enter and remain in teaching, re-entry and career change training, and examination of state and national teaching assessment programs (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1987).

At a time when education is committing greater attention and resources to recruitment and retention strategies, recruitment requirements associated with federal grants to prepare special education and related services personnel have been substantially weakened. In the late 1980s, the U. S. Department of Education amended regulatory provisions requiring grant recipients to provide a description of how the institution of higher education or state education agency would provide equal access and treatment for eligible project participants who were members of traditionally underrepresented groups, (e.g., racial or ethnic

minority groups, persons with disabilities). The new requirements call for an assurance that the applicant does not discriminate in terms of project participants. Provisions relating to the employment of project personnel were amended in a similar fashion. These regulatory amendments were viewed by professional organizations, such as The Council for Exceptional Children, and advocacy groups as a policy reversal and a substantial retreat from requirements calling for affirmative steps to encourage individuals who are members of racial and ethnic minority groups and persons with disabilities to become special education teachers, administrative as well as related services personnel.

The suggestions which follow are for improved recruitment and retention of culturally and ethnically diverse individuals into special education and related services fields.

Reestablish, and where appropriate, strengthen regulatory requirements requiring that affirmative steps be undertaken by recipients of federal personnel preparation grants to recruit individuals who are members of ethnic and racial minority groups as well as individuals with disabilities. To ensure that serious attention is given to the development and implementation of this component of the application, consideration should be given to attaching a numerical value to this part of the application in the review process.

Information and data relating to successful recruitment and retention programs, practices and activities, in special education and related service areas, need to be collected, evaluated, and disseminated to the field. While special education may or may not benefit from recruitment and retention efforts aimed at overall education, meaningful ways for special education to relate to these programs and activities need to be determined. The National Clearinghouse for Professions in Special Education could play a central role in collecting, reporting, and disseminating successful recruitment and retention programs and strategies in special education.

Other suggestions related to recruitment and retention include:

- \* Early recruitment at the secondary school and undergraduate levels.
- \* Identification of barriers in the completion of degree requirements.
- \* Importance and role of support systems such as peer and cohort groups and mentors in student retention.
- \* Improving the image and appeal of education, including special education and related service areas, to culturally diverse students.



Inclusion of Cultural and Linguistic Knowledge and Skills Within Training Programs. Rapidly changing demographics have intensified the need for professional educational programs to include relevant course content on culturally and linguistically diverse children. The Council for Exceptional Children Standards for Professional Practice (1983) include multicultural education requirements for both basic and advanced special education personnel preparation programs.

The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (1987) has recommended four alternative curriculum approaches (i.e., pyramid, unit, infusion and courses), to promote the inclusion of content on culturally and linguistically diverse populations within professional training programs. In addition to academic preparation, such programs should include practicum experience with culturally diverse children. For programs with limited access to multicultural populations for practicum purposes other experiences will need to be provided.

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# **Some Perspectives on Preparing Personnel to Work with At Risk Children Birth to Five**

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The passage of Public Law 99-457 has brought to the forefront a number of issues related to the preparation of personnel to provide services to infants and young children who are developmentally at risk. This paper addresses some of these issues by summarizing the discussions of an interdisciplinary group of professionals who came together at the Forum on Emerging Trends in Special Education and Implications for Training Personnel. The paper first addresses some general considerations for preparing early intervention personnel and then focuses more specifically on early intervention leadership personnel. The aim of this paper is to provide some perspective in development of early intervention personnel preparation programs.

## **Defining the Issues and Identifying Alternative Solutions**

The provisions of P.L. 99-457 require each state to define developmental disabilities and risk status in ways which establish eligibility for services. This means that states will likely employ different definitions and establish eligibility for services in a variety of ways. Consequently, different populations may be served in one state as opposed to another. This situation has obvious implications for personnel preparation. The definitions employed by a state must be reflected in their personnel preparation efforts. Thus, OSEP applicants must specifically define the populations for whom personnel are being prepared. These definitions should be in

concert with those employed by the state in which the applicant is based and/or be consistent with current knowledge and theory. At the same time OSEP needs to guard against using language in announcing priorities that would be too narrow and thus would fail to encompass all definitions. It is necessary to be cautious about creating new labels such as "crack babies" or "AIDS babies" to refer to groups whose characteristics make them as heterogeneous and individually different as other groups of children.

Since the provisions of P.L. 99-457 call for the use of multidisciplinary teams in the formulation of Individualized Family Service Plans (IFSPs) and Individualized Educational Plans (IEPs), personnel preparation efforts for the birth-5 population should be directed at a variety of disciplines (e.g., special education, occupational therapy, speech/language therapy, nursing, audiology). At the same time these efforts must provide for the understanding of each discipline by the others. Furthermore, personnel preparation programs must emphasize case management, collaboration and networking skills. Mechanisms for fostering such skills and understanding can include team taught courses, curriculum which includes courses from several different disciplines, clinical and practicum exposure to sites that employ multi-, inter- or transdisciplinary teams, and courses in team function. To facilitate the development of these mechanisms, OSEP must be cognizant of the increased cost often associated with this type of training and must make provisions for it in their budgeting and planning process. Finally, it must be remembered that effective disciplinary training is an essential prerequisite for effective interdisciplinary preparation and that one is dependent on the other.

Another focus of personnel preparation efforts must be the establishment of a knowledge base on typical and atypical development for the birth-5 age range. This may include the development of specific skills and expertise directed at the infancy (birth-2) or preschool (3-5) levels. Such skills and expertise are seen as applicable to all disciplines involved in the provision of services to the birth-5 population.

Due to the increased emphasis on family involvement in P.L. 99-457, personnel preparation programs must include in their curricula information on identification of family needs and strengths; family systems and dynamics; and family services in their curricula. As with interdisciplinary training this may be accomplished through a combination of coursework and practicum experiences.

In summary, personnel preparation efforts related to serving the birth-5 population should:

1. specifically define the population of children to be served by the personnel being prepared;

2. emphasize interdisciplinary preparation while recognizing the importance of disciplinary preparation;
3. have a major curricular focus on typical and atypical development in children birth-5; and
4. have a major curricular focus on the family.

#### Issues in Leadership Preparation

Early intervention leadership professionals can fall into several categories, including clinical, administrative and policy, research, and university teaching personnel. All of these types of personnel are important and OSEP should support programs aimed at each of these categories. Equally important is the obligation of the individual preparation program to provide a clear statement of the need for any category of leadership personnel they intend to train. Such need statements are particularly important in justifying postdoctoral preparation.

Applicants should address issues of quality as part of the rationale for any program. In particular, applicants should demonstrate how they will develop problem solving skills in the leaders being prepared. It is recognized that the means by which problem solving skills are developed, for example, by a researcher may be different than the means by which these skills are developed by a clinician. More thought should be given to different types of degrees (e.g., Ed.D.s, Ph.D.s and even new clinical doctorates) and their relation to various leadership roles. Leadership preparation programs must recognize the importance of clinical research, qualitative research, and policy analysis as well as more traditional research approaches in the development of problem solving abilities and must tie the appropriate type of research experience to the category of personnel (e.g., college teacher or clinician) being prepared.

Leadership preparation programs should include clinical exposure, although it is recognized that this exposure may be quite different for the researcher than it is for the college teacher or policy analyst. Exposure to research is also important but within the context of the development of problem solving skills discussed above.

#### Implementation Obstacles, Barriers and Inhibitors and Strategies for Responding

Implementation of P.L. 99-457 will depend on the development of a new cadre of professionals who are equipped to provide services to children birth-5 who are disabled and at risk. To prepare these front line personnel more leadership personnel are needed who have the expertise to develop and implement personnel preparation programs. Many of these new leadership personnel will be university faculty and will be trained through existing

and developing doctoral training programs. However, other mechanisms for training leadership personnel must be developed.

While many present college faculty members have had extensive experience in preparing special education and related services personnel generally, they have not had experience in the preparation of personnel for the birth-5 population. Further, present facilities may lack the necessary expertise for preparing such personnel. While post doctoral training programs may alleviate this problem to some extent, other mechanisms are also needed to provide existing college faculty with this expertise more quickly.

One mechanism is to establish faculty exchange programs. These programs can allow college faculty to exchange positions with early intervention providers. These individuals could work as a team and begin to offer courses to students at the university while at the same time allowing the college faculty member to develop understanding, expertise and knowledge in the area of early intervention.

Another mechanism would be to develop faculty development seminars which could be offered during the summer or during semester break and could provide intensive preparation. The content of these seminars might focus on skills and knowledge in areas relevant to early intervention. These seminars could be developed by regional consortia, by individual universities with sufficient expertise in early intervention, by the National Early Childhood Technical Assistance System (NECTAS) or by other organizations with the necessary resources.

A university mentoring system also may provide a means for upgrading faculty expertise. Such a system might work by identifying a university that would provide technical assistance and mentoring to faculty in other universities in order to develop the necessary expertise in early intervention. For example, in a state where there is a single comprehensive state university where early intervention expertise is concentrated, this university could provide technical assistance and mentoring to faculty at the regional state universities where such expertise might not exist.

In summary, it has been suggested that early intervention leadership preparation programs:

1. clearly justify the need for a particular category of leadership preparation (e.g., policy analyst vs. clinician);
2. address ways of developing problem solving abilities in leadership personnel;



3. incorporate exposure to clinical programs in the doctoral curriculum which are appropriate to the role for which an individual is being prepared.

Further, it has been recommended that mechanisms be developed and funded by OSEP that can provide existing college faculty with the expertise needed to prepare front line personnel for early intervention programs.

### Summary

The issues and suggestions offered here hopefully provide a point of departure for the development of personnel preparation programs for early intervention personnel. In no way is it suggested that these are all of the issues or even that the issues presented here are fully thought through or resolved. Merely, it is hoped that this brief presentation might be seen as a springboard for further discussion and as a basis for the identification and explication of other issues relating to the development of early intervention personnel.

\*This article was co-authored by the writers in their private capacity. No official support or endorsement by the Department of Education is intended or should be inferred.

# **Children with Complex Medical Needs: Implications for Training Personnel**

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## **Defining the Issue**

As increasingly sophisticated technology and medical knowledge promote the survival of infants and children with complex medical needs, more public attention has been focused on their care and education (Sirvis, 1988). Children with chronic illness and special needs now have access to appropriate public education. The passage of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, increased the number of students with complex medical needs within public school settings.

The unique educational services required for students with special health care needs have challenged more traditional approaches (Wood, Walker, & Gardner, 1986). These students for example, may need life or health support procedures during the school day. They may be technologically dependent or require administration of medication. The education of students with specialized health needs has raised many questions about appropriate training practices for special educators as well as who should perform needed services during the school day (Johnson, 1986; Osborne, 1984).

In 1988, a CEC Task Force representing school nurses, special educators and pediatricians convened to delineate the issues related to planning educational programs and related services for children with complex medical needs. Among the Committee's recommendations was that of using interdisciplinary teams to provide educational and health support for this population and to provide relevant training for educational and health care professionals.

The issues concerned with training personnel to care for children with complex medical needs in school settings was the topic of a February, 1990, U. S. Department of Education forum titled "Emerging Trends in Special Education: Implications for Training". The report described in this document summarized the deliberations of the multidisciplinary panel assembled to address training recommendations for educators involved in the care of medically fragile children. The training guidelines span the preservice, inservice and leadership training levels.

The critical questions identified by the panel included the following:

1. How can personnel training reduce fears related to serving children with specialized health needs?

2. What type of curriculum should there be for multilevel training of special educators and related service personnel who serve children with complex medical needs?
3. How can "best practices" training procedures for educators and related service personnel working with children with complex medical needs be disseminated statewide and nationally?

### Alternative Solutions

For each of the above questions, the panel proposed solutions. Although these are "ideal" solutions, they represent approaches that should be considered when mapping out a comprehensive training plan to adequately address the educational needs of medically fragile children.

#### 1. How can personnel training reduce fears related to serving children with specialized health needs?

A key element in reducing fear is education. Through in-service and preservice training teachers, administrators and related health personnel can become sensitized to the range of medical needs as well as learn medical terminology, acquire knowledge of equipment and procedures as well as gain an awareness of warning signs (e.g., breathing difficulties, seizures), that are potentially anxiety-producing for the professional.

A second element in fear reduction is to define this population in a more realistic and dynamic way. The term "medically fragile child" is often used, yet can convey an impression that the child might break. The term "medically fragile" may in fact increase a professional's fear of the child or child's condition. Suggested is a more appropriate term that may serve to challenge the professional, that is, "children with complex medical needs". Within this definition, four broad categories can be included: (a) technology assisted, (b) special considerations (e.g., asthma or diabetes) and (d) communicable diseases.

#### 2. What type of curriculum should there be for multilevel training of special educators and related service personnel who serve children with complex medical needs?

A core curriculum that addresses the terminology, etiology, implications, and interventions associated with providing services to this population is needed for all levels of training from the Associates through the Doctoral level. In addition, selected components of the curriculum should be taught at the in-service level. Often the in-service training would be child or problem-specific since the professionals working in the field would be encountering specific problems in their work with children. Regardless of the level of content, the curriculum

must have an interdisciplinary approach within the framework of a family-centered orientation. The design and delivery of the curriculum should involve the appropriate disciplines. The interdisciplinary focus would include medical, educational and psychosocial components. Varying methods of learning strategies should be employed to afford trainees the opportunity to observe and practice procedures involving equipment and appropriate medical care.

While the overall focus and philosophy of the core curriculum would be the same across training levels, training approaches would differ. At the Associates and in-service level, training would address resources for child-specific as well as general educational needs in the area. Recommended is a case management training approach which would collaborate health and education to assist providers who are experiencing the challenges of working with children with specialized needs.

At the preservice level (Bachelors and Masters), specialized courses should be offered in addition to basic requirements. Existing courses can be infused with the curriculum content on a multi-level basis. Doctoral level training should include both formal course work and internship opportunities that provide hands-on experience. An integral leadership training component would be that of research training in the field.

### 3. How can "best practices" training procedures be disseminated statewide and nationally?

An important aspect of developing a core training curriculum is its implementation at the state and national level. First, best practice within the curriculum must be defined in a multi-disciplinary way. Since the proposed curriculum is designed to be both adaptable and interdisciplinary, it is expected that there will be different emphasis with regards to best practices depending on state needs. Systematic dissemination within states is most likely to take place through efforts of state education and health care departments. Nationally, best practices can be described and demonstrated through interdisciplinary forums, conferences and national training institutes.

### Obstacles to Obtaining the Ideal

Successful implementation of multilevel training that prepares educators and related service providers to work effectively with children with complex medical needs requires overcoming several barriers. One such obstacle is attitudinal, that is, fear of working with medically involved children. For example, professionals' fears of not knowing appropriate care procedures or not recognizing distress signs may interfere with service delivery.

Another formidable obstacle involves the availability and sharing of interdisciplinary resources. A requisite of the



proposed core training curriculum is the utilization of expertise of special educators, medical health providers and mental health specialists. Finding ways to link these resources is central to curriculum development and implementation. The availability of the financial resources needed to support such training is a potential obstacle. At both the state and national level creative efforts must be made to support multilevel training.

### Strategies for Moving Toward the Ideal

There is a clear need for training professionals to respond to the educational challenges associated with children with complex medical needs. Such training must be multilevel and collaborative across disciplines. Moreover, the training must be adaptable to fit the needs of the educator or service provider.

How can such training be developed and provided? How can the barriers to implementing and disseminating this training be overcome? These questions must be addressed at both state and national levels.

If the curriculum and training is to be truly interdisciplinary, then efforts must be made to bring representative professional groups together to promote these efforts. The newly created Federal Interagency Coordinating Council (FICC) is one example of possible interface among agencies. Collaboration can be encouraged via interdisciplinary conferences in which workshops and panels promote dialogue and planning across disciplines. Finally, federal agencies that grant training funds must identify training needs in this area as pertinent to their priorities. There must be intercollaborative planning and pooling of funds to support and sustain such training at the state and local level.

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